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FOR THE BLIND INC.





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# ...AND THERE WAS LIGHT

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Nº 5



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## EDITORIAL

That Braille, which for many years has been the recognized and universal medium of learning for the blind and of communication among themselves as well as with the seeing, should be threatened in its very existence seems somewhat fantastic.

Of late however, amazing numbers of applied inventions destined to replace it have come to light and have been widely advertised, this in the majority of cases without much discernment.

I have before me hundred of clippings in many languages announcing

"New Eyes for the Blind, Braille is Dead", "New Invention Enabling the Blind to Read Ordinary Books" etc. As to the speed of reading for the blind with some of the new devices, it was simply amazing. And naturally if anyone's enthusiasm, based on commonsense and experience were somewhat cold, well, services rendered as well as many years' devotion to the cause of the blind were not openly questioned but one was accused of blocking the way of progress from purely personal motives. Under these circumstances

doing one's duty was certainly more difficult and unpleasant than shirking it.

Many well-intentioned and well-to-do persons all over the world were led astray by some of these new devices or by their promoters. Large sums were futilely spent by people who had at heart the cause of the blind but who unfortunately were not familiar with their needs.

The American Braille Press has studied carefully every new device, many of which can be seen in our laboratories. The conclusion of all this work is not very encouraging and the substitutes for Braille have still a long way to go before replacing it or even merely supplementing it efficiently.

This does not mean that for instance long playing records or sound films will not be perfected technically and placed cheaply at the disposal of the blind. It does not mean that all research work in that field should be discouraged. It simply means that more discernment should be used by those proposing a new panacea which will do away with

the handicap of blindness. That such handicaps exist no one should deny, but by inaccurate statements the public at large is led to believe things which are not true and the final sufferer will always be the blind.

That the blind should have a system of writing as a means of communication and exchange is obvious. Did the seeing do away with writing or printing because they had at their disposal the phonograph, radio-broadcasting, television, etc?.

I have noticed that some of the most severe critics of Braille among the blind do not use it; either they hardly know it or their ability to use it is seriously questioned. Evidently for those devoid of the sense of touch or lacking mental training. Braille or any other system of reading by touch must be, as an Englishman recently put it, "caviar".

I have therefore serious doubts as to whether these same people would spend hours listening to any kind of literature recorded on a long playing record or a sound film !

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# A TRIBUTE TO THE LATE Mrs WILLIAM ZIEGLER

By WALTER G. HOLMES

Manager Matilda Ziegler Magazine for the blind.

Mrs. William Ziegler, founder of the Matilda Ziegler Magazine for the Blind, passed into her eternal rest at her home in New York City, September 1, 1932, in her ninety-second year. Mrs. Ziegler had been failing for only a few weeks before her death and then she just quietly and peacefully breathed her last, those at her bedside hardly knowing when the end came. Three years ago, she slipped on a rug in her home and fell, breaking her hip; as a result she was confined to her bed thereafter until her death, but otherwise her health was perfect and she was bright and happy to the end. Her patience and cheer during that long time in bed were marvelled at by everyone who saw her, especially since she had led such a vigorous and active life.

A simple funeral service — that of the Episcopal Church — was held in her home the afternoon of September 3, and the body was then borne to the family vault in Woodlawn Cemetery, a handsome mausoleum erected by Mr. Ziegler before his death, a miniature reproduction in granite of the famed Parthenon in Athens. Among many floral tributes was a blanket of red orchids and lilies of the valley on smilax that covered the entire casket, given by her son. Beside the son and her

other son's widow, she was survived by three nieces and two nephews. Let us not think of Mrs. Ziegler as gone but as being with us always in spirit, and she will still continue to speak to the blind through the magazine which bears her name.

The day after Mrs. Ziegler passed away Mr. William Nelson Cromwell, President of the American Braille Press, gave this beautiful tribute to her in the New York Times: "In the death of Mrs. Matilda Ziegler the blind have lost one of their most devoted friends and generous benefactors. There can never be enough reading matter in embossed print for the use of the blind, as in the case of inkprint for the seeing, and Mrs. Ziegler recognized this fact twenty-five years ago when she established her Braille Magazine which was sent, free of charge, to any blind person in the United States who asked for it. Mrs. Ziegler brought great happiness to thousands of blind men and women and her name and memory are to be blessed by both blind and sighted. We mourn in the departure of one of God's noblewomen".

My connection with Mrs. Ziegler and the founding of the Matilda Ziegler Magazine for the Blind came about in a singular way. I had

been for years in the newspaper business in Memphis, Tennessee, and in 1906 I came to New York on business for our paper. While I was in New York some man's will was published, in which he gave funds to the deaf, the crippled, the orphans and other charities, but no gift to the blind. I sent a little communication of a dozen lines to

not overlooked. To the newspaper I gave my New York address and the next day the notice was published with my initials and New York address.

I received a letter from Mrs. Ziegler at once saying she had seen my notice and would like to know what I had to suggest as she had always wanted to do something for the



Two deaf and blind girls formerly employed on the Matilda Ziegler Magazine (*The one on the right is now dead*). One is reading the magazine to the other, telling her by the manual alphabet what she reads. To those not accustomed to dealing with the blind their facility of communicating with each other by this means is marvelous.

one of the daily New York newspapers, wondering why it was that when people did so much for other handicapped, they too often overlooked the blind. I spoke of the needs of literature and instanced the great cost of embossed matter for the blind. My initials only were signed to the article and I only hoped that it might suggest to someone that when doing for others the blind be

blind. Later I met her and she said that if I would manage the work she would supply the funds for establishing a monthly magazine for the blind. One beautiful thing about it was that while she said she would do the financing she insisted no one must ever know that she was doing it - but her family and I finally persuaded her to let her name be used, realizing it would be neces-



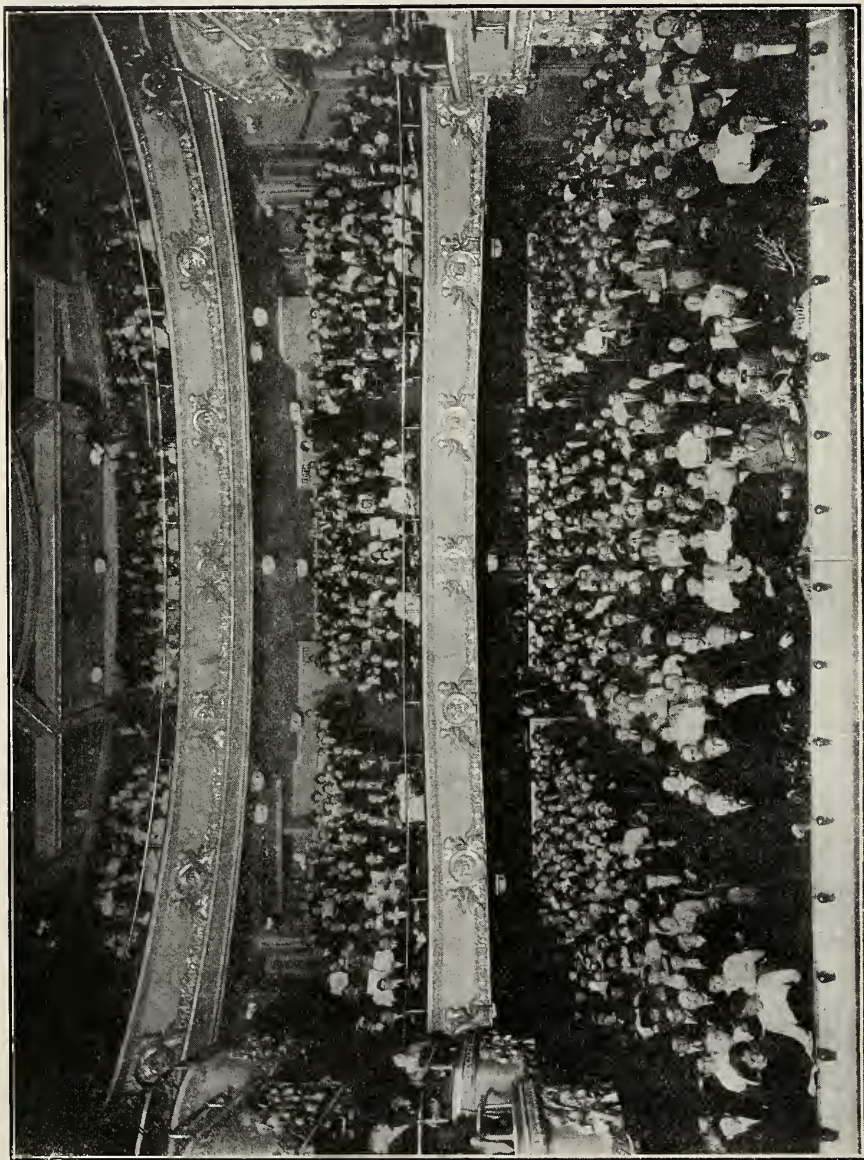
Blind girls collate the sheets of the Matilda Ziegler Magazine. The one week of each month which finds them thus engaged they call their « week of happiness », as they are then profitably employed.

sary to know that some strong person was back of it, and on March 1, 1907, the first issue of the magazine appeared. At that time there were two types for the blind in general use: Braille and New York Point. There are some three thousand old people in the United States who still read the latter system.

Mrs. Ziegler was Miss Electa Matilda Curtis, descended from old pioneer American stock. She was born April 13, 1841 at Schuylerville, New York, the daughter of Henry D. and Electa Abel Curtis. She was first married to Edward R. Gamble and by that marriage she

had a son Charles G. Gamble, who lost his sight early in life through an accident. He died in 1917, in the fifty-fifth year of his age, and was survived by his widow, who was Miss Suzanne A. Bennett and who now resides at Luzerne, Pennsylvania. It was the blindness of this son that led Mrs. Ziegler to become interested in doing something for other blind. In 1885 she was married to Mr. William Ziegler of New York, who was prominent in the business and scientific world. He founded the Royal Baking Powder Company and financed two expeditions to the polar regions, one of





For years the Matilda Ziegler Magazine for the Blind has arranged theater parties, —all the blind of New-York and vicinity being invited free of charge. The above is a picture of the audience at a play in which Miss Jane Cowl was the star. She arranged other of her plays for the blind, giving them on an extra matinee.



which was said to have been the best equipped of any polar expedition; Mr. Ziegler died in 1905. Mr. and Mrs. Ziegler adopted a son, William Ziegler Jr. when the boy was only a few years old. He was a son of Mr. Ziegler's brother.

Mr. William Ziegler Jr. has always been greatly interested in this work for the blind started by his mother, and we will now have to look to him for advice and help, since our other good right arm has been taken. In the October issue of the Matilda Ziegler Magazine he said: "My Mother felt most keenly the affliction of my half-brother who was blinded by accident when a small boy. Both she and my father always showed a keen interest in the blind and the many problems which confronted them. Because of her son, her understanding of the blind - their characteristics and reactions, their viewpoint toward life, - was far clearer than that of the average person. The Matilda Ziegler Foundation is her monument. Mr. Holmes and the rest of us to whom have been entrusted its care and its policies will always be guided by what we know to have been her wishes and inspired by her wonderful personality."

I have always had the Magazine cater to the adult blind who constitute the great mass of the blind and who most need reading matter and to be entertained. When the Magazine was first started Miss Hellen Keller wrote to Mrs. Ziegler and said: "We hope you will have as little about the blind as possible in the Magazine for we know enough about that from experience", and I have as a rule, followed this advice in the twenty-

five years of publishing the Magazine. Miss Keller has often said that she reads every article in the Matilda Ziegler Magazine. In a recent letter from Miss Keller, written from Scotland, she told of the degree being conferred on her by the University of Glasgow and of meeting the King and Queen of England, George Bernard Shaw, and other celebrities. Speaking of Mrs. Ziegler's death she wrote:

"Polly Thomson came in a little while ago and told me that Mrs. Ziegler is dead. I wish I could tell you how thousands of blind people thank God for her and her gift! She could not have made a greater contribution to our happiness than by presenting us with a magazine from which, as from a watch-tower, we could survey the world and be thrilled by its great events and discoveries. Whenever I talk with the blind or visit an Institution, even here in Britain, Mrs. Ziegler seems just to have preceded me. Her name is written as one who loves her fellow-creatures, not upon the Magazine alone, but in the hearts of all its readers. I hope she was as happy in her goodness as she deserved to be. I love to think of her now as young and beautiful and glad in the Light of all she has done on earth. I wonder why our thoughts lag so helplessly when we try to express our deepest feelings. I can only hand my failure over to you, dear Uncle Walter, who will know how to say the right thing. You will tell the beautiful story in The Ziegler in such a way that all generations will bless Mrs. Ziegler as one of the greatest benefactors of the handicapped".

# THE CENTENNIAL OF PERKINS INSTITUTION FOR THE BLIND

By GABRIEL FARRELL, Director

*A hundred years of service is a remarkable record for any institution but when the achievements of a century have been planned and directed by but three men the record is unique. But such is the record of Perkins Institution for the Blind which celebrated its centennial on November 9 and 10.*

*Education of the blind has made great progress since the beginning of Perkins in 1832 and in the advance the school at Watertown has been constantly in the lead. The story of its progress as revealed in the leadership of the three directors is here told by the fourth and present director, Gabriel Farrell.*

It was a fortunate day for the blind when Dr. John D. Fisher walked down a certain street in Boston and met another young doctor Samuel Gridley Howe. Turning to his friend Dr. Fisher exclaimed: "The very man!" For five years Dr. Fisher had been trying to start some work in Boston for the blind whose plight at that time is hard to imagine. After finishing his medical course the young Boston physician had gone to Europe and while in Paris was tremendously impressed with the school for the blind established by Valentin Haüy in 1794. Coming back to Boston he spent

three years interesting Bostonians in the possibility of doing something for the unfortunate without sight. In 1829 a distinguished group of citizens appeared before the Legislature and secured an act of Incorporation, creating the first school for the blind in America.

Securing a charter was simpler than securing someone to conduct the school. For two years the incorporators sought without success until that day in 1831 when Dr Fisher designated Dr. Howe as "The very man". Approaching the fine upstanding physician who had just returned from participation in the

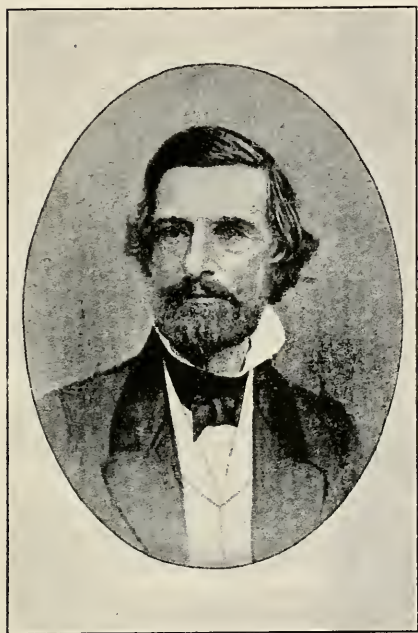
Greek Revolution where his constructive genius supplemented the inspiring leadership of Lord Byron, Dr. Fisher said:

"Howe, while you have been away freeing the Greeks from the unspeakable Turk and reconstructing the Cretans, we here have incorpo-

In Europe the young adventurer became embroiled in the efforts of Poland to secure her freedom, which cost him five weeks in a Prussian prison. Freed from imprisonment Dr. Howe continued his study of schools for the blind and in April, 1832 returned to America bringing with him two blind teachers, one from the school in Paris and one from Edinburgh.

In August 1832 Dr. Howe and his two teachers met in his father's house on Pleasant Street, Boston with six blind children. Eagerly the three men worked to convey ideas to these children without sight. Dr. Howe gummed twine on pasteboard to form raised letters. He cut out pieces of board to represent countries. He formed types with the letters and digits raised on the ends and made a metal frame perforated with square holes in which the types were placed. Soon the children learned that the types could be placed in the holes so that the combinations would indicate apple, chair or some other tangible thing. This was the beginning of what is now Perkins Institution.

Two of the first pupils were sisters Abby and Sophia Carter. While driving about the country looking for blind children for the new school Dr. Fisher and Dr. Howe saw two attractive little girls sitting by the toll house on the post road to Andover. Immediately the doctors prevailed upon the parents to send them to the new school and they were the first pupils. Sophia lived to a good age and the school was always like a home to her. At the time of the semi-centennial exercises Miss Carter wrote that if as much progress is made in the education of the blind in the next fifty years as has been in the last, blindness would cease to be a calamity.



Dr Samuel Gridley HOWE

rated a school for the blind and now need someone to organize and run it; you are the very man to do it".

Dr. Howe accepted the challenge for his was a spirit of service. Here was a new venture with all the allurements of revolution but without the bloody aspect of physical force. Here was a chance to demonstrate the great motto of his life, "obstacles are things to be overcome". Within a week Howe set sail to study the methods of the European schools.



While the loss of sight will always be deplorable, the work accomplished at Perkins through the century has removed most of its calamitous aspect.

To tell the whole story of Samuel Gridley Howe would fill many columns and would touch all phases of life. His human interest reached out to all unfortunates and it was said of him at one time that he was "driving all of the charities and reforms of the state abreast". He was the friend of John Brown, Charles Sumner, Horace Mann and all of the leaders of his day. He was an ardent abolitionist and played a large part in the anti-slavery movement. Through his insistence that the deaf should be taught articulate speech, the method of teaching the orally handicapped was changed and there came into being the Clarke School at Northampton and the Horace Mann School in Boston. Shortly after his work for the blind and the deaf it was whispered, "He is going to teach the idiots next". True enough in a short time he applied to the legislature for a sum of money for "the experiment of teaching and training ten idiotic children". That experiment is now the famous Walter E. Fernald State School in Waverley. In 1865 Dr. Howe established the State Board of Charities on such fundamental principles that they are still guiding posts to those charged with the administration of charity.

Despite the greatness of all these achievements, Dr. Howe will go down to posterity for his phenomenal accomplishment in the education of Laura Bridgman. In 1837 he brought the little girl, who had lost all power of speech, sight, hearing and part of the sense of smell at the age of four, from Hanover, N.H. to the school at South Boston. The

story of the liberation of this sense-imprisoned soul is too well known to need repeating. It has been related by many but perhaps most tellingly by Charles Dickens. This achievement made Dr. Howe world famous and when he went abroad after marrying Julia Ward, now remembered as the author of the Battle Hymn of the Republic, it was like the triumphant march of a great conqueror. But all of this acclaim never changed "the doctor" from his steadfast desire to help the downtrodden. For forty-four years he gave unstinted leadership to Perkins Institution and upon his death in 1876 he was hailed as The Great Philanthropist and the Servant of Humanity.

It was a fortunate day for the blind when Michael Anagnos was elected as the second director of Perkins Institution. This was not easily accomplished however. Many good Bostonians were skeptical about placing the control of this favored institution in the hands of a foreigner. Although he had been assistant to Dr. Howe for eight years and was practically in charge of all of its affairs for some time previous to the death of the first director, the trustees felt that they must elect one of their own and the choice fell on Dr. John Homans, a young Boston physician. Dr. Allen tells the story as Mr. Anagnos related it:

"At this juncture I went to our President and said, 'Dr. Eliot, like other Greeks here I can black boots. So perhaps you would better set me up in that business; for now that I have already and for some time administered the institution practically alone and satisfactorily, as you yourself admit, I will not stay there and play second fiddle to any man!' Soon after this explosion of mine, Dr. Homans, having come to



look over the institution with the Trustees, said to them rather bluntly and in my presence: 'Why should I quit my profession to direct a school of which I know little? Indeed, you have shown scant wisdom in selecting me. No, I'll not accept. Here's Anagnos who knows the place and its work from A. to Z. Elect him'. And that's how I came to be Director of Perkins Institution".

The spontaneous spirit of this son of Greece is well shown by the circumstances which brought him to America. Dr. Howe went to Greece to carry relief funds to the Cretans. In this work he needed an interpreter and found one in a young man recently graduated from the University of Athens and editor of a radical newspaper of Athens. When the task was over the American asked this young man of Greece how much he should be paid:

"What do you receive for your services to my compatriots?" he asked. "Why, nothing, of course", replied the Doctor. "Neither do I want anything; but I beg you to take me to America with you. Perhaps I can be a professor of Greek over there".

Michael Anagnos came to Boston in 1867 and the story of his rise reads like a romantic thriller. He assisted "the doctor", married his beautiful daughter, Julia Romana, and finally became his successor. Mr. Anagnos was just the kind of a leader that Perkins needed. A thorough scholar he emphasized the educational side of the school while at the same time bringing in startling new ideas. He began the teaching of Sloyd and introduced Swedish Gymnastics and especially corrective work among children needing it. He selected teachers with great care and gave them every facility for



Michael ANAGNOS

doing a masterful piece of work.

When he took charge of Perkins, books and appliances for the education of the blind were hard to secure. To meet this need and also to perpetuate the name of his chief, Mr. Anagnos established The Howe Memorial Press, raising a considerable sum to form a perpetual endowment. This was the first printing press ever established in a school for the blind, first in the Boston Line Letter invented by Dr. Howe and now in the uniform braille of universal use. The Press has also produced special appliances like braille writers, slates for hand writing and other technical apparatus. A more recent venture is the manufacture of games for the sightless such as playing cards, checkers, dominoes and other games.

Mr. Anagnos was a great lover of children and it rent his heart to have to refuse admittance to the little children who were without sight. It is recorded that one night while sitting with Mrs. Anagnos he suddenly jumped up and cried, "I'll do it"! "Do what"? quietly asked this wonderful helpmate. "I'll start a kindergarten for little blind children". This became the absorbing passion of Mr. Anagnos life. He talked about it everywhere, he pleaded for funds to build and sustain it until the kindergarten became Boston's darling charity and over a million dollars were raised for its support. A splendid set of buildings was erected at Jamaica Plain and the kindergarten was opened in 1887, the first school for little blind children in the world. Here it remained until the new plant was

built in Watertown where the kindergarten buildings are upon the same grounds as the institution. It is still however a separate foundation with its own funds and staff but with the same director and trustees as the upper school.

Again to tell the full story of this director would take many columns. Like Dr. Howe his name, too, is associated with the education of a deaf, blind and at first mute person. In 1887 the family of Helen Keller wrote to Perkins for suggestions about the care of their daughter, who had been deprived of three senses through scarlet fever at the age of three. Mr. Anagnos sent to the Alabama home of the Kellers one of his recent graduates, Miss Anne Sullivan, now Mrs. John Macy. Before sending her he fully instructed Miss Sullivan in the



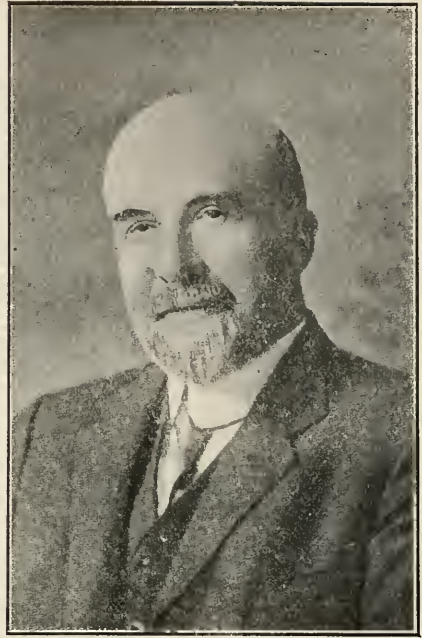
Perkins Institution at South Boston, 1904.

methods used in the education of Laura Bridgman and also gave her a special course in psychology, then a subject not taught as casually as it is to-day. In 1889 Miss Sullivan brought Helen Keller to Perkins at Mr. Anagnos' invitation and for four years she lived at the school in South Boston.

While on a trip back to his native land Mr. Anagnos passed away in Rumania in 1906 and was buried in his native village of Epirus. He rendered loyal service to America and must be rated among the leading educators of his time, but he will always be honored as a great Greek. Last summer when a national Greek society was holding its convention in Boston a large company led by the Archbishop of the Greek Church came out to Watertown and placed a wreath upon the bust of Mr. Anagnos which stands in the kindergarten quadrangle. With profound ceremony they hailed him as the most distinguished Greek American.

It was a fortunate day for the blind when in 1907 Edward Ellis Allen was elected as the third director of Perkins Institution. A graduate of Harvard and from a family of school masters, Dr. Allen brought a trained scholastic mind to the leadership of this school for the visually handicapped. With the trained mind was a fleet and trained body, for Dr. Allen was an athlete of ability. Because of this background he was the first to believe and to exemplify that the blind could play games and run races. Athletics were made a part of the program of blind education. Athletics meant space and open air and Dr. Allen gave these to two of the greatest schools for the blind in America.

Before coming to Perkins Dr. Allen was head of the Pennsylvania



Dr Edward Ellis ALLEN

Institution for the Instruction of the Blind. When he took charge of that school in 1890 it occupied a block in the heart of Philadelphia. Dr. Allen moved the school to the suburb of Overbrook and erected a stately structure placed in the midst of open fields and gardens. With that experience Dr. Allen came to Perkins in 1907 and immediately set to work to repeat that program, only, as he has said, profitting by the first endeavor. As a second effort Dr. Allen feels that he did a better job at Watertown. In the new plant the institution or upper school at South Boston and the kindergarten at Jamaica Plain were brought upon the same grounds but still retaining their academic and financial integrity.





First steps.

The school at Watertown, designed by R. Clipston Sturgis and erected in 1912, is generally considered one of the finest school plants in the world. Upon a site of nearly forty acres on the banks of the Charles River only five miles from

Boston stand the groups of brick buildings in Tudor Gothic style surmounted by a tower of stately beauty rising one hundred and seventy-five feet in the air. The Lower School, as has been said, stands alone housed in a group of buildings forming a cloistered quadrangle. The Upper School centers in Howe Building with its central chapel, museum, auditorium and library, not to mention the gymnasium and swimming pool on floors below. To the west of the central portion are the class rooms of the girls' school, while beyond the main building in the same direction are the cottages in which the girls live. In the same manner the boys' school and cottages reach out to the east. And all about are landscaped grounds, gardens and athletic fields. Dr. Allen built this school to carry out his philosophy of a sound mind in a sound body, and play abounds as well as work.

The trend of Dr. Allen's thought is not inward nor introspective. His mind is always reaching out and this



Boys' Close.

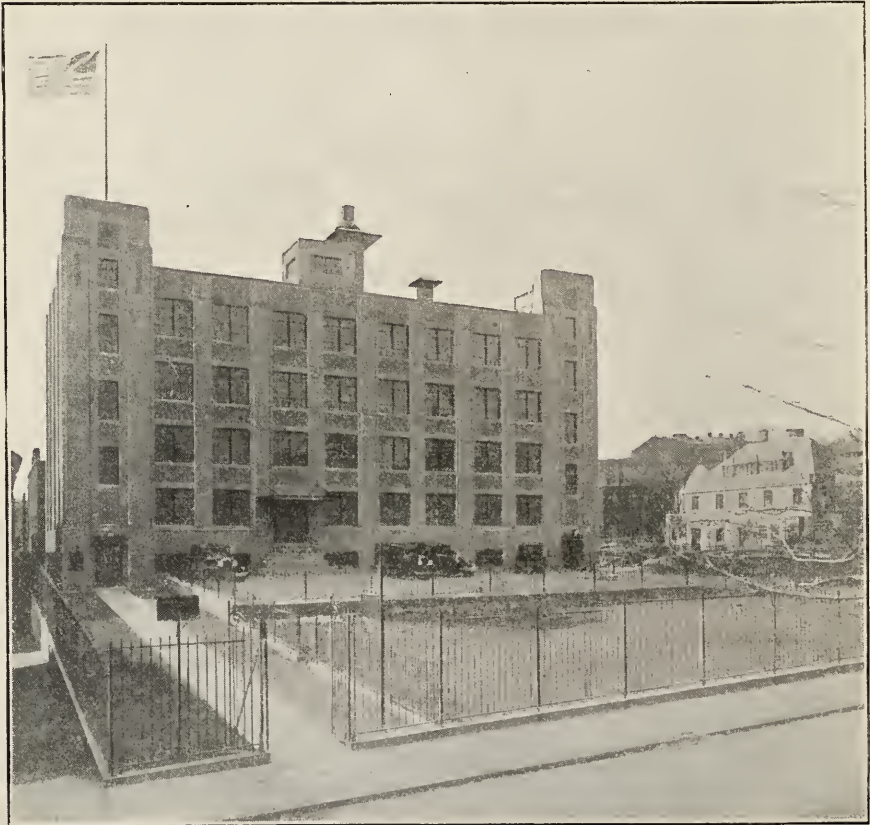




Perkins Institution Tower.

is reflected in his record at Perkins. Constantly he maintains that the cause of blindness is more important than a blind person. He is interested in the greatness of the cause and in a large way his influence has reached far from the great tower of Perkins. As an inheritance from Mr. Anagnos, Dr. Allen founded the greatest library on blindness in America and a phenomenal museum of objective teaching material. This Dr. Allen put to work by establishing a course

for the training of workers for the blind. To be sure that this venture would be distinctively educational in character, Dr. Allen first had this course made an integral part of the graduate school of education in Harvard University. Now those who come to attend it enroll first of all in Harvard and receive their credit from the University. The fact that the course is given at Perkins is only secondary. Perkins is but the means to a high educational end.



South Boston Workshop for blind men and women, in 1931.

From this course men and women have carried the influence of Perkins and the impress of Dr. Allen to all parts of the world. Perhaps this idea for the dissemination of the Perkins spirit came to Dr. Allen through the fact that early in his career he was a teacher at the Royal Normal College for the Blind in England. That notable institution is itself a product of Perkins. When the English authorities wanted a leader for this school they turned to the Boston institution and called from there Francis Campbell, who later became Sir Francis because of his distinguished work. In the same way and with the same spirit Dr. Allen has been sending his students to all the world and now there is hardly a country which has not within it a "little Perkins". Studying at the school now are pupils from Egypt, India, Japan, Greece and Cuba.

Let Dr. Allen tell as he has recently done in an address the principles on which his leadership of twenty years has been built :

"The most fundamental of these are : socialization of the youthful blind for acceptability and diffusion in the world at large; lessening the artificialities of institution life through the substitution for all of an approach to normal family life, and so living normally as a means of education rather than merely a preparation for life; providing each and every member the opportunity and duty of daily self-help; having the teachers live in; selecting them for what they are rather than for what they know, and making of the greatest benefit to the pupils their culture by having them live with their charges and especially bringing about that rapport which comes only with dining all together; separate schooling for the boys and the girls and small classes; no compromise with conviction; always thrift and frugality as a religious cult; therefore, simple living and high thinking; intimate leadership; continued devotion, yes, consecration, to the whole cause of the uplift of the blind".

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# THE LONDON CONFERENCES ON BRAILLE

By L. W. RODENBERG\*

Illinois School for the Blind, Jacksonville, Ill.

It is proverbial that there is no outstanding Americanism—no distinct American characteristic. On close analysis, however, one is led to wonder if, after all, behind the seeming absence of national traits, may not be discovered the identity of an absolute Americanism. Our nation, in its vast development, not only has drawn on every variety of native originality, but has sought to adapt the best that other lands have to offer. Thus it is that in American institutions, so far as their material aspect is concerned, there is a confusion of things which is unique only in its compositeness. But in its non-material aspects this same confusion—or shall we say variety—of things has created something which is distinctly American: it has endowed our people with liberalism. The American has the capacity to view a subject with impartial sanity, even though the process be costly and at times provoking. It is sufficient for him that the wheels of progress, jolting from rut to rut, should at last run firmly and smoothly on new and paved highways.

What we have said about Americanism in general has its application

also in the field of Brailledom where the spirit of liberalism, subconsciously perhaps, has been at work for several decades. The blind of America have suffered the inconvenience of rational adjustment of systems of embossed print. They have created systems of their own and have been the victims of their native desire for improved methods. With this background of experience they are now called on and able to advance with conviction to standard usage. We need not at this time review the long history of type transitions, but it is comforting to remind ourselves that the confusion, now happily over, was a necessary prologue to a glorious event—the establishment of the universality of Braille. Without this experiment of decades, without this proof of American liberalism, the invention by the son of the harness-maker of Coupvray might never have triumphed over blindness.

Let us consider for a moment what the enlistment of America in the legions of Brailledom means.

Roughly estimated, so far as the production and use of braille are concerned, the English-speaking lands contain more than half of the braille-reading blind of the world. Hence it is obvious that the full

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\* Blind.



acceptance of the braille principle in Great Britain and America is a major fact in the universal establishment of the system.

But now let us see what part America plays in the English-speaking element. About nine-tenths of the braille readers of all the British Empire reside in the British Isles. A comparison of populations will then disclose the fact that about two-thirds of all English-speaking blind are Americans. A further comparison will show that the American group constitutes about one-third of all the braille readers of the world.

American liberalism has just made its last great contribution to the cause of Brailledom—an agreement with Great Britain on the uniform use of Standard English Braille. The present article would be sadly wanting if it did not express gratitude to those who have hastened this signal achievement.

Although so-called Revised Braille was known long before the movement was inaugurated which culminated in Standard English Braille, forceful impetus was given to it through the publications of the American Braille Press under the direction of Mr. George Raverat. His insistence on uniformity was one of the clarion calls to determined action.

But special gratitude is due Mr. R. B. Irwin, Executive Director of the American Foundation for the Blind, for visualizing the vast economic and educational waste occasioned by differences in embossing English books and for assuming the forbidding task of creating sentiment in America and Great Britain favorable to negotiations for complete uniformity. For over three years he met opposition at every turn, despite the fact that

the principles he was promulgating seemed obvious. Finally, through his indefatigable and personal effort and influence the American Association of Instructors of the Blind and the American Association of Workers for the Blind delegated a committee with power to make arrangements with the British.

The time and place of conference were set. The meetings were held July 18 and 19, in the National Library for the Blind, London. The three American delegates were the following: Mr. George Meyer of Minneapolis, representing the A. A. W. B.; Mr. L. W. Rodenberg of Jacksonville, Ill., representing the A. A. I. B.; Mr. R. B. Irwin, representing the Associations jointly and the American Foundation. All points brought before the conference were successfully disposed of and a joint edition of a new key was left to be made by a sub-committee consisting of Miss Pain, representing the British delegation, and Mr. Rodenberg representing the American delegation. The resulting text will be printed without differences in England and the United States and will be available in both inkprint and braille when the present article is published.

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The conference on music was held July 20, at the National Institute for the Blind and was presided over by Mr. P. T. Mayhew of the Institute. Mr. Rodenberg represented the United States. Arrangement was made for the final endorsement and publication of "Notation Musicale Braille", the text of the 1929 conference on music held in Paris. This action however did not disqualify the existing British and American texts

which are more comprehensive than the Paris text and contain but few divergencies from it (explained in leaflet supplements). It was agreed that in the event of future editions there should be proposals for joint action between Great Britain and America.

*NOTE:* The final and exact translation of "Notation Musicale Braille" will be available from the American Braille Press. The braille copy will be published first and will be ready for distribution shortly after the appearance of this article. The cost will be seventy-five cents, payable in foreign money order. The text in inkprint will be made available at the earliest possible date. The first English translation was made in Paris, then improved by Mr. Watson and Mr. Mayhew in London, and finally made exact by Miss Ranson and Mr. Rodenberg in Jacksonville. Exact translations have also been made in German, Italian, Spanish and Esperanto. For this achievement of uniformity of Braille symbols throughout the world, special

commendation is due the American Braille Press without whose vision and influence it might never have been brought about.

At the conference on music the so-called "methods" or "styles" were also touched on with an emphasis on the fact that, since symbols are uniformly used, the styles do not lead to contradiction or confusion. In this regard it became apparent that, in the liberal use of the basic styles—the continental paragraph method, the English bar by bar—the blind of America far surpass those in any other land. The problem of "methods" would thus seem to be solving itself, since most American musicians believe that each of the styles or methods has its use and should not be relegated.

In conclusion, let us make the sweeping and significant observation that the blind of the United States of America constitute the largest group of braille readers in the world. Every individual in that group is now called on to prove the liberalism which is his instinct as an American.

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# THE OPENING OF A NEW PRINTING PLANT IN WARSAW

By Captain NICOLAS WROCZYNSKI \*

Editor of the Monthly Review « Ociemnialy Zolnierz »

Under this title I intend to present a sketch of the Braille print in Poland and the newly created Braille Printing Plant in Warsaw, which has been generously given by the well-known American philanthropist, William Nelson Cromwell, who already during the Great War spent large sums for the relief of blinded soldiers, and later extended this aid to civilian blind, founding in several countries braille printing presses with the sole aim of aiding and enlightening the blind.

Less than a century ago the blind, through their affliction, were cut off from Science and study. The first printing presses for embossed dotted writing were set up in Paris in 1840 and three years later a pin-pricking press was started in Warsaw, the capital of Poland—so the education of the Polish blind actually had its inception at that moment. This education however was retarded through ravages of war which divided Polish territory between foreign powers. Nevertheless in 1843 the National Institute for the Deaf and Dumb and Blind printed twelve books in special pin-prick print for the blind. In 1866 the Gospel of St. Mark was

printed in Hebold print, i. e. normal print, embossed and enlarged. By 1868 the Institute possessed a complete Hebold press. Another period of hardship, during which time the printing plant of Warsaw was suppressed by the oppressors, ensued. A second printing press however at Bydgoszcz continued its work of supplying printed matter to the blind.

Through the Great War Poland recovered her independence. Her blind population was very much increased by a large number of war-blind, many of whom were highly-cultured men, consequently the whole situation of the blind assumed an aspect hitherto unknown.

A period of organization followed. Associations of war-blind were formed all over Poland under the patronage of eminent people. These associations loudly proclaimed the needs of the blind and endeavored to build up a different relationship between the sightless and the sighted. The civilian blind on their part began to organize their unions in a more energetic manner.

Our printed material supplied by the above mentioned Bydgoszcz press and one given by the American Braille Press in 1927, both worked

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\* War-blind.





### GROUP OF GUESTS IN THE READING ROOM

(From left to right).

*Representatives of the Government* : Mrs KOPLEWSKI, SWIERCZEWSKI, Dr ZACHERT, WILCZYNSKI.

*The President of the Union of Mutilated War-Blind, Member of the National Assembly,* Commander WAGNER.

Mrs. KOZŁOWSKA.

Mrs. BARACZ of Lwow.

Captain JOHN SILHAN of Lwow.

Mr. S. LOPATTO, *Director of the National Institute of the Blind.*

Mr. J. MLYNARSKA of the Management of « Latarnia »

COUNTESS TYSZKIEWICZ, *President of the Polish Section of the American Braille Press.*

Mr. M. KOTNOWSKI, *President of St. Polono-Américaine.*

Miss MACELKOWNA of the National Institute of the Blind.

Mrs. HUDDLE of the United States Embassy.

Mr. F. WOZNIAK, *Blind.*

Mrs. KORALEWSKA, *wife of the Town Councillor.*

Mr. HUDDLE, *Consul-General of the United States of America.*

Mr. KRAKOWSKI of the Department of Public Welfare.

Abbé KUCZYNSKI, *Chaplain of the National Institute of the Blind.*

Dr. KEPINSKI, *Vice-President of the Polish Section of the American Braille Press.*

Colonel ZURAKOWSKI, *representing the Army.*

(In the background).

Mr. GINSBERT, *representative of the Press.*

Mrs. FRANKOWSKA, *Editor of the « B'Zbior ».*

Mr. JOHN FRYLING of the Foreign Office.

Mr. KONWINSKI, *Delegate from the Institutes for the Blind of Bydgoszcz.*

Mr. DABROWSKI, *Blind tuner.*

Lieutenant SMIDERSKI, *war-blind.*

by hand, proved insufficient to meet the urgent needs of our blind.

The general situation of Poland was one requiring all the reorganizing forces of the country and the claims of the blind seemed doomed to wait. The American Braille Press, well-known for its humanitarian work, had for several years supplied the first Polish braille magazine called "Braille a Zbior",

gratis to the blind in Poland. It supplied also books of several well-known Polish authors, among which twelve volumes of Reymont's "Peasants" can really be considered the ornament and pride of Polish libraries for the blind. In 1929, the Society "Latarnia" created in 1921 to aid the war-blind came into touch with the American Braille Press in Paris and a Polish Section of the American Braille Press was



#### THE PRESS

(From left to right).

Mr. SIENKIEWICZ, *Printer of the National Institute of the Blind and Deaf and Dumb.*

Dr. KEPINSKI, *Vice-President of the Polish Section of the American Braille Press.*

Mr. ZONGOLLOWICZ, *Undersecretary of State in the Department of Public Instruction.*

Mr. HUDDLE, *Consul-General of the United States of America.*

Mr. DEMBINSKI, *of the Foreign Office.*

Mr. KOTNOWSKI, *President of the St. Polono-Américaine.*

Mr. WYGANOWSKI, *Avoué.*

COUNTESS ROSE TYSKIEWICZ, *President of the Polish Section of the American Braille Press.*

Mrs. BARACZ, *wife of a blind man of letters of Lwow.*

Mrs. KOZŁOWSKA.

started in Warsaw under the patronage of the President of the Polish Republic. Since June 1, 1929, the "Braille' a Zbior" had been edited in Warsaw but printed in Paris. When our needs seemed greatest the President of the American Braille Press realized our inopportunity and supplied and installed at his personal expense a complete printing plant at Warsaw. The Ministry of Public Welfare in Poland, realizing the extent of this magnanimous offer, presented the Polish Section with quarters to house the machines and start their noble task. On October 16, the official inauguration took place in the presence of many distinguished guests from all parts of Poland, representatives of the Government as well as some prominent war-blind.

The Vice-President of the Polish Section of the American Braille Press, Dr. Kepinski, in his speech stressed the power of the printed word in the whole world, serving Science, touching and instructing the masses, cheering their solitude

and bringing the comforting light of mind into the night of the blind.

Now the Polish blind possess a National Printing Press and the "Braille' a Zbior" is being printed in Warsaw. The editorial work is by no means easy as the magazine has to satisfy a heterogeneous collection of readers, more or less educated, both adults and children.

Subscribers to "Braille' a Zbior" number 350 but as it is read in schools and institutions it is enjoyed by more than a thousand. This number is far from satisfactory, but until the restoration of Poland the level of schooling for the blind was very low, with the progress attained at present the ranks of educated blind will be increased sensibly.

We Polish soldiers, united in our Association of War-Blind with our own organ in print, are happy to welcome the inauguration of a Braille Printing Press in Poland and wish the Polish Section of the American Braille Press a long and fruitful career.

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# THE BLIND OF ITALY

By Dr. Capitano AURELIO NICOLODI\*

Presidente dell' Unione Italiana dei Ciechi.

All countries engaged in war have given spontaneous help to the war blind, which has made the question of blindness—which is as old as time—suddenly interesting in an unexpected and different way, from that in which the general public regarded it, with pity or curiosity. Since 1915 so much has been said of the blind that I do not think that anyone would dream of returning to questions settled from now on, such as education and instruction accessible to them and which they can have, independently of some slight variation, in every civilized country of the world.

Although much has been said on the matter it does not imply that the subject has been handled thoroughly and appropriately in its essential points: as a matter of fact the idea which still strikes the susceptibility of the blind most is the one most voiced by the public and which has become a rhetorical phrase, the underestimation of the capacities of the blind.

When one speaks of a man as bald, it never enters anyone's mind that baldness in itself can determine any particular inclinations and activities; but if one says of a human being, including finches, that he is blind, then immediately through

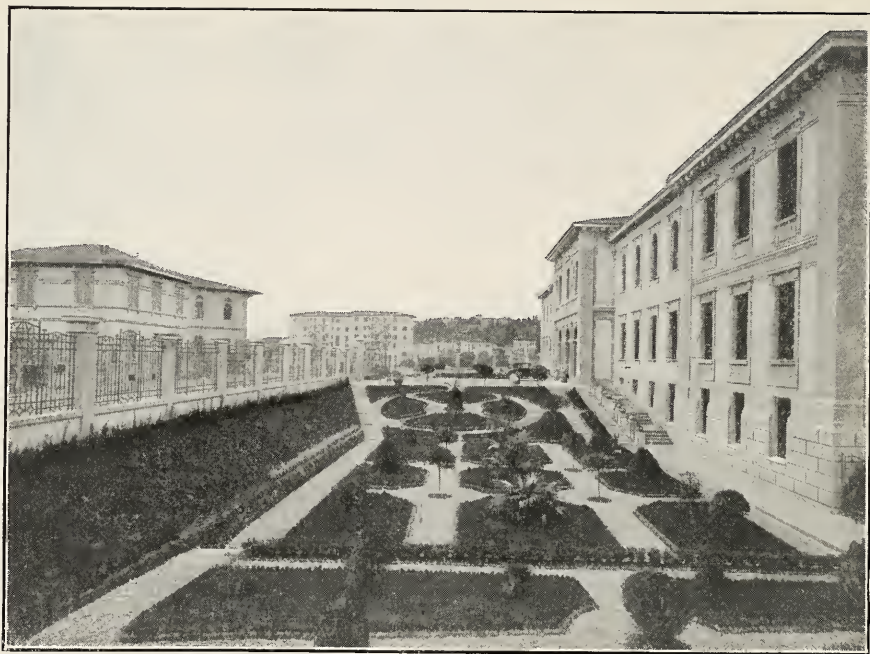
prejudice and rhetorical phrase, to which I have alluded above, one thinks that he must like music for instance, or succeed in turning his taste towards a more appropriate form of existence so that the soul, twice prisoner in body and darkness attempts to divert itself in escaping from the mind on invisible wings.

If that is no longer the universal way of looking at the blind it was at least so up to the moment when the mass of war blind like bees coming out of a hive, took their flight towards the most varied activities of mind and body of young people full of life and consequently incapable of bearing, not so much the darkness to which they were condemned, as the lack of understanding of others as to the possibilities, will and capacity which remained to them.

Just as a bald skull can house the brain of a minister or a butcher, so, behind a face deprived of the harmony of expression and eyes, the talent of a mechanician or business man may indeed exist. There may also be, and which is certainly not rare, a sick brain, a defect in congenital intelligence or imbecility as the causes of blindness have not been accidental and traumatic, but have been occasioned by deep atavic defects or through sicknesses which have injured the central nervous system.

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\* War blind.



National Institute for the blind « Vittorio Emmanuele II<sup>o</sup>, Florence.

So when one says *blind*, one must first of all discern whether it concerns a man who has lost his sight but whose body and mind have remained intact, or whether it is a question of a poor human rag whose weak or nonexistent intellectual and physical capacities relegate him to the utter depths of imbecility, in the real Latin sense of the word.

The greatest aspiration of the real blind, I will speak of the first category for the second are only a class of sick people to be pitied the most, has always been to create for themselves a life of work and profit and this aspiration through its tenacity is capable of accomplishing real miracles. Who then can tell of the infinite despair and

slow agony of those who, in spite of their willingness, have not succeeded in making a career for themselves, although possessing at the price of untold sacrifice, a truly incredible amount of knowledge. There are blind doctors who have learnt several languages, including Esperanto, who play various instruments and are even professors of singing, and who nevertheless remain condemned to the humiliation of not sufficing to themselves. People end by considering them inapt, as people who have received a diploma through pity but which in reality are worth nothing at all.

What irony of fate!

Not even ten years ago, in Italy too (and I say that because moral and material conditions of the blind

are alike in every country) it was a common occurrence to find in institutions for the blind, blind doctors, professors either of science or music or letters, schoolmasters and handicraft teachers, who, for five times the work of the sighted in the same profession received remuneration five times less or even less than that. The vital problem of the blind, that of rising to an independent living by making the most of all their capacities, found even in the best of their institutions the most discouraging disappointments.

The problem of the blind, the paramount problem, is then solely to give to these men obsessed with the desire for occupation, the possibility of manifesting their capacities in a dignified way.

For the others, in whom blindness is only a part of their tragic maladies, the problem resolves itself into merely providing assistance and a home.

This idea which is clear to the blind raised nevertheless a revolution among those who, making a convenient and splendid prebend for themselves under the name of blindness, find it useless if not dangerous for themselves to introduce such strange novelties.

Against the irreducible incomprehensibility of certain blind, the Italian blind have found no other means of acting than by forming an association "The Union of the Blind of Italy"; they were urged to take this step by the war blind who have taken a vigorous lead. These saw numerical strength in their civilian comrades who upheld the import of their movement, a voice which, responding enthusiastically to theirs made it formidable; those saw in the war blind their own

idea of justice which it had become possible to claim.

The Union of the Blind of Italy, during its twelve years of existence has shown numerous results.

It has annulled all the provisions of the law which treated the blind as an inferior being; it has authorized him to take a position on any administrative board in institutions for the blind; it has appointed him director of at least nine institutions for the blind; it has made State professorships in schools and conservatoires available to him (to-day there are twenty professors in higher schools); it has had them registered as *masseurs* in military and civil hospitals; it has enabled them to be employed by commercial houses and musical factories as tuners; it has contributed largely to the foundation of the National Braille Printing Press, which furnishes all institutions for the blind throughout the kingdom with school and text books, books for recreation and with music. The National Printing Press prints besides three magazines: the "Corriere dei Ciechi", organ of the Association; "Il Gennariello", devoted to children, founded and directed by Commandant Oreste Poggiolini, eminent President of the National Federation of Institutions for the Blind; and finally "Il Progresso", an instructive and documentary magazine, due entirely to the fraternal generosity of the American Braille Press.

The Union created moreover a permanent commission which operates in close contact with the ministry and which exercises control over institutions for the blind of the whole kingdom. The division of institutions for the blind into primary schools, music schools and professional schools is due to the Union. The commission founded



a Braille Circulating Library, "Regina Margherita", with head office at Genoa and which distributes to all the blind of the land text books, books for teaching, music and recreational works; this library is on a par with the best libraries in the world. Finally the Permanent Commission

That is the work accomplished by the Union of the Blind of Italy during the twelve years of its being. However we should consider, and justly so, that we had betrayed the hopes of the majority of the blind, belonging, to the poorest and humblest classes, if we had not succeeded



National Printing House, Stereotyping Dpt, Florence.

has been and is actively concerned with propaganda for the prevention of blindness and its beneficent effect has already been partly felt, in fact the number of blind children has decreased so much in Italy, that not only is our country one which contains the fewest blind, but the number of people afflicted with such misfortune will steadily be reduced to a minimum.

in solving the main problem: that of work.

There are two reasons why, usually the workshops for the blind show poor results and end by swallowing up more money than they earn. The first reason is that it has been customary to admit without any thought of distinction the blind worker really capable and profitable as well as the unfortunate inapt

incapable of learning anything, to whom we referred before.

Thus it happens that efficient work of which the blind are capable is largely depreciated and is expressed in a moral and material check.

The other reason which contributes to aggravate and hasten this state of affairs is the accumulation of manufactured articles which, absorbing a considerable amount of capital, adds to the deficit of the enterprise.

The Union of the Blind of Italy, taught by repeated experience, has solved the problem of work through the National Patronage which not only accepts in its own workshops really capable blind, but ensures the completion of the work by sighted persons, chosen preferably from, among war widows and orphans.

The Patronage, thanks to the clear-sighted benevolence of the Government and particularly of the Duce, enjoys special exoneration from fiscal taxes, it is moreover certain of the sale of its products to various public services to whom goods are delivered at the same price as that fixed by tradesmen at the time of the adjudication.

It is only through the medium of an organization such as we have just described that we believe it possible to attain two aims, the

first moral, the second material—both essential to the life of the blind.

Moral aim, for the reason that in this way the blind will no longer be isolated in special workshops, forced to appeal to public charity for subsistence, but working freely with the sighted they can give free course to their activity without feeling that they are accepting alms.

Material aim, because we do not see how it would otherwise be possible to ensure a daily wage to the blind equal to that of a sighted person, without mentioning the fact that it is only through an experiment of this kind that one can dream of preparing for and hastening the moment when blind will be admitted into businesses of all kinds in which sight is not indispensable.

There is a secondary question concerning the special demands which the blind must meet which the sighted does not encounter.

It is solely a question of social foresight which can only be settled by a State organization, and we have perfect confidence that the Fascist Government which has always shown itself solicitous for every humanitarian work, will not refuse its most benevolent attention and its most efficacious support.

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# MIMICRY OF THE BLIND

By M. GEORGES DUMAS

The observations of which I am giving a résumé and interpretation here, were made three years ago at the National Institute for the Young Blind and at the Valentin Haüy Association; more recently at the National Institute for the Young Blind and on several occasions of isolated cases of blind people whom I have known in different circumstances. In all I made thirty observations.

To avoid misunderstanding I recall a distinction which in itself is paramount, that of spontaneous expression of emotion and mimicry.

When, under the influence of joy the facial nerve is excited, it reacts on the ocular sphincters causing contraction. This contraction results in diminishing the apparent size of the eye and sometimes goes as far as to conceal the sclerotic and to cause wrinkles, known as "crows' feet", in the skin at the outside corner of the eye.

At the same time the excitement of the face provokes the contraction of the buccinator, of the muscle which lifts the nostril and upper lip, of the large and small zygomas in such a way that the fleshy part of the cheeks is drawn upward and outward, the nose seems to stretch downward and forward and a groove is formed between the nostril and the middle part of the cheeks known as

"naso-genial" (nose and cheek muscle).

I can state passing over some detailed contractions, that that is the spontaneous expression of joy.

But if for reasons of politeness or expediency I wish to appear happy or if in describing the joy of another or of myself I assume a joyful expression in order to illustrate my word I am practising mimicry.

Mimic or mimicry is the conscious imitation of spontaneous expression. This distinction has not been made in the greater number of recent works treating emotional expression. It is however paramount and by neglecting it everything can become confused.

Mimicry can be very easy as in the preceding case in which it is merely a question of bringing a few striate face muscles slightly into action to obtain the mimic of joy.

When it is a matter of reproducing facial expressions of inhibition such as those showing fear it is much more difficult. In this case the orb becomes loose enlarging the eyes, the zygomatic, muscles and the lower levator, the cheeks tend to disappear, and, the lower jaw muscle and that of the temple relaxing, the lower jaw drawn down by its weight is inclined to hang and half open the mouth.

As we have no means of reproducing the hypotenuse of a muscle by will, we could never have imitated the expression of fear if we had not tricked our mimicry and we have tricked it by influencing antagonistic muscles of the ocular sphincter, cheek and masticatory muscles. That is to say, in order to give the illusion of a loosened sphincter we contract the forehead; to give the illusion of cheeks disappearing we contract the triangle of the mouth thus lowering the ends and that, to give the illusion of a hanging jaw, we bring the tongue bone and the depressor of the lower jaw into action.

I need scarcely remark how imperfect is this mimicry compared with the mimicry of joy.

We put up with it however where we must, for the need of expression, take on in a more or less discreet way the mimic of fear and terror.

In both cases we imitate but in the second we trick our mimicry like an actor who puts on rouge, and we only obtain approximate effects.

How do we obtain mimicry?

We can observe our manner of imitation in two different ways and draw two conclusions.

The first consists in believing that we are imitating voluntarily our own spontaneous expressions after becoming conscious of it through our muscular and cutaneous sensibility.

The second consists in saying that we are imitating the expressions of someone whom we know by sight.

In the first case an individual origin is attributed to the mimicry, in the second a social origin.

Every explanation seems to have *a priori* its probability and formerly I chose the first when I studied emotional expressions. I make

amends. One should take the second.

It would obviously be a great service to the blind to teach them mimicry which would make them seem more like ourselves, it would draw us nearer them and at the same time contribute to adapt them to this community life from which their blindness isolates them.

To settle the question I started with the idea that if a person born blind can be capable of emotional mimicry without ever having seen the spontaneous expressions of others or his own, he is aware of his expression through muscular and cutaneous sensibility, that is through his own experience; that on the contrary if a person born blind is incapable of reproducing his own expressions by mimic, it is for the simple reason that he has never seen those expressions shown by others nor by himself. So experimenting with people born blind I must get information about the origin of mimicry.

I risked, and that was my fear, getting part-results i.e. weak mimics, undeveloped, who would have testified to the participation of sight in perfect mimicry but without eliminating the participation of muscular and cutaneous sensibility.

My subjects, all chosen from those born blind, to eliminate the part of visual memory, were mainly between twelve and twenty years of age. Several of them, professors, were between thirty-five and forty.

From accounts of sighted people living with them and from my own observations, they express their emotions normally by spontaneous reaction. There are relatively few however in whom one can observe full facial expressions, as the ocular muscles which serve to facilitate and



protect the functions of the eye are often affected in their action through lack of exercise, but in most people these muscles react somewhat and in some the reaction of the ocular sphincter is almost normal under the influence of emotion such as laughing. The play of the cheek and the mouth muscles is of course normal.

There is D..., twenty-one years of age, blind through purulent ophthalmia. "Are you sometimes afraid"? I asked him. He replied in the affirmative. Question: "Can you take on a scared expression?" Answer: "I don't know what you mean" The same result as to anger, sorrow, joy. D... however had a good laugh over a small incident just now. I ask him to resume the expression which he had. After several attempts he gives it up. He is mediocre even in the expression of a mere smile.

The same result with E... forty years of age, accustomed to self-analysis. "I know perfectly well what you ask me", he said "but I do not know how joy, sorrow or anger are expressed on my face". Question: "Do you not feel at least that your happy, laughing face is not the same as your sad face"? Answer: "No".

I only encountered obstacles.

Then I put a question in a more general form: "What happens to your face in anger, joy, fear"? All replied that they clap their hands when joyful, they clench and put out their fist in anger, and they jump back when frightened, so they recall acts more or less complex and voluntary, but they have no recollection of spontaneous contraction of the face.

It is therefore very evident, at least to my mind, that if they cannot

mimic their spontaneous reactions it is because they cannot see.

Without their blindness they would have observed the reaction of others, perhaps their own, although one hardly looks at oneself in a mirror during the course of emotions: in any case they would possess a language of which they do not know a single word, and much is not gained by maintaining after on's experiment that mimicry is entirely of visual origin i. e. social origin.

The question would be simplified very much if we consider our mimicry the result of visual observation which we have made of spontaneous expression in others.

As a matter of fact we who mimic so many expressions in conversation and speech, have observed very few for spontaneous expressions - I mean the strong expressions which could serve as example - are relatively rare in everyone's experience and the mimicry of children is already formed long before they can have visual experience of all the expression they mimic.

Doubtless mimicry is a visual imitation of expressions, but this imitation which has developed in the course of time, and whose origin is lost in that of humanity, has ended a long time ago in creating a collective language of mimicry. It is this language which gives us through the medium of sight models of mimicry which we reproduce. People have accepted the most visible, the most aesthetic schemes and have selected them before offering them to us for adoption.

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To this theoretical conclusion I think I can add this practical con-

clusion, that in the absence of sight the social source of mimicry, the blind can through the use of tactile principles, succeed in this as well as in other domains by replacing visual facts.

I have known some whose curiosity was aroused during the course of our conversation, who became aware by placing the back of the hand on the face, that their cheeks

lifted when laughing and who tried to make them do it when smiling.

There is one who through his education and culture became conscious of some expressive movements. It is obvious that the mimicry of fear, seeing its great complications, remains unknown to him but through the elementary mimicry of expression of pleasure the face became more animate.

## FORM FOR BEQUEST

I give and bequeath to the American Braille Press, Inc.  
598, Madison Avenue, New York, N. Y., the sum of  
..... Dollars to  
the general use of the said corporation.

.....  
(Signature)

.....  
(Address)

## BOOK REVIEW

### The World of the Blind

By PIERRE VILLEY

The MacMillan Company, New York  
City, 395 p. \$2.25

One of the most remarkable blind men living to-day is Professor Pierre Villey, Secretary General of the Association Valentin Haüy of Paris. Prof. Villey has achieved fame as a literary scholar as well as a scientific authority on the problems of the blind. This book is the English translation of his well known *Le Monde des Aveugles* which was awarded a prize several years ago by the French Academy of Moral and Political Science. In the foreword Dr. Pierre Janet speaks for the French Academy as follows :

"We have been asked to designate, for a prize of five thousand francs, the author of the best work of recent years on the subject of the psychology of the blind. Our Section of Philosophy could not do otherwise than present the name of Pierre Villey, Professor of Literature of the Caen Faculty of Letters. His book: *The World of the Blind*, is a fine work, which has certainly revived and transformed the psychological study of the blind.

"M. Villey has been blind from his earliest childhood, but this fact has not prevented him from pursuing his studies at the Higher Normal

College and from passing all his examinations. The subject he chose for his thesis for the Sorbonne was Montaigne, and it certainly is a remarkable work of erudition in itself, and seems almost like a challenge from a blind man. M. Villey has studied the literary and scientific works of a great number of blind men and women and the idea which inspired his book: *The World of the Blind*, is to prove that, contrary to the opinion so widely spread, the blind man's intellect, intelligence and personality do not differ from the intellect, intelligence and personality of the man who has his eyesight.

"There are, in my opinion, two chapters in this book, particularly profound which, whilst treating of the psychology of the blind, go beyond it and are a remarkable contribution to psychology in general. The question treated in these two chapters is whether the space of the blind man is the same as that of the man who sees... In this study M. Villey furnishes, on several points, experiences which are particularly decisive."

M. Villey devotes an interesting chapter to "Intellectual Culture and the Braille Alphabet." One of the statements which he makes is that many blind persons read at the rate of from 100 to 120 words a minute. "I know of one", he says, "who exceeds 200 words. He reads dis-

tinctly, more quickly than an orator speaks, as the later rarely exceeds 150 or 160 words."

M. Villey emphasizes that the blind do not constitute a single group. He believes there is a future for blind men in such occupations as mattress making and rope making, language teaching, and massaging.

This book is certain to remain an authoritative work on the psychology of the blind for many years.

### **The Handicapped and the Gifted**

A publication of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. The Century Company, New York, 1931. 604 p.

This volume is of great interest to all teachers of physically handicapped children. A very fine chapter is devoted to "the blind and partially seeing". Among the significant findings of this investigation we learn that the number of blind children under 20 years of age in the United States is 14,400—and that 6,000 of these children are being educated in state, private, or public day schools and classes.

We are told that the annual per capita cost of educating blind children in state residential schools is \$630.00 and that the annual per capita cost in braille classes in public schools ranges from \$120.00 to \$ 590.00. The number of partially seeing children who should be in "sight saving classes" totals 50,000 and only 5,000 of these are enrolled in such classes.

The White House Conference, in this volume, emphasizes the need for more braille day school classes in

large cities throughout the United States. The chapter on the blind says:

"If really adequate braille day school class departments could be established in most of the large cities, it would be an inestimable boon to many blind children. Few educators of the blind will dispute the fact that some children benefit more by attending residential schools for the blind than by living at home and attending braille day school classes. Nevertheless, many are better prepared to cope with the world as they grow older if they have been able to live their whole lives as members of the seeing group and as part of the normal family.

"At least eight states encourage the establishment of day school classes for the blind by allowing state subsidies to cities when such classes are operated. These subsidies take one of several forms: (1) payment of part of the teachers' salaries; (2) a certain specified grant for each class; (3) a certain fixed annual per capita allowance; (4) payment of excess cost of training a blind child over that of instructing a seeing child. Such state aid is usually coupled with some form of state supervision which is largely concerned with insuring that cities comply with certain specified standards as to qualifications of teachers, physical equipment of classroom, salary schedules, and so forth. Of the 21 cities making legal provision for the establishment of braille day school classes, 3 of them do not have any at the present time, although 7 blind children are being cared for in their school systems. In the remaining 18 cities there are 416 blind children attending public school.



"One phase of the education of blind children which needs immediate attention is that of the vocational adjustment of braille day school class pupils. The first question which should be settled on this subject is whether or not public schools should provide any specialized vocational training to blind pupils. The next step should be that of working out a program which will make possible the necessary correlation between vocational training and vocational openings for young blind people, and it should take into account the individual differences of these prospective pupils. The tendency to say that the blind can fill this class of jobs should be discouraged and the thought substituted that "a given blind person of such and such abilities can adequately fill this particular position".

### **The Wills Hospital of Philadelphia**

By WILLIAM CAMPBELL POSEY, M. D., and SAMUEL HORTON BROWN, M. D., J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, 1931. 340 p. \$5.00

When the Wills Eye Hospital of Philadelphia was built 100 years ago, its nearest neighbor was the newly established Pennsylvania Institute for the Instruction of the Blind; both institutions have become leaders in their respective fields in America. The Hospital was made possible by a fund of \$ 125,000 from Mr. James Wills "to erect a hospital for the blind". An effort to employ some of the funds to assist the school for the blind several years later was unsuccessful, as the legacy did not permit use of the money for educating the blind.

The Wills Eye Hospital of Philadelphia witnessed the birth of

ophthalmology—its emergence as a branch of general surgery into the highly developed and specialized science of to-day. As a school for ophthalmology, no other institution in America, perhaps, has been of so great influence in the education of physicians in that branch of medicine; and through its students its influence has spread far and wide.

This scholarly volume reveals how crude were the methods of treating the eyes 100 years ago as compared with the methods of science today. Thousands became blind from various infections and injuries of the eyes which are successfully treated in the eye hospitals of the present time. It is shocking to realize how little could be done by the eye physicians 100 years ago for the kind of cases which are typical in the daily routine of the ophthalmologist today. Dr. Pasteur revealed the significance of germs, then Dr. Lister discovered antiseptics, and then Dr. Collier discovered cocaine—which made deliberate eye surgery possible.

The authors relate how the movement for prevention of blindness really dates from the celebration in 1882 of the hundredth anniversary of the foundation of the French Asylum for the Blind by Valentin Haüy. In honor of the centennial Dr. Ernest Fuchs of Vienna was awarded a prize for the best essay on "The Causes and Prevention of Blindness". This essay brought him international fame and gave impetus to the movement for prevention of blindness and the conservation of vision. From 1882 until his death in 1930, Dr. Fuchs was acknowledged by his professional colleagues everywhere as the most eminent ophthalmologist in the world.

## From Homer to Helen Keller

By RICHARD SLAYTON FRENCH, Ph. D., American Foundation for the Blind, New York City, 300 p., \$2.25

It is a long story of many and changing moods, this that tells the history of how normal mankind has regarded the blind from Homer to Helen Keller. It would be difficult to find in the whole story of civilization another that would so clearly prove the bettering quality through the marching centuries of the human heart. It took a long, long time for that quality to become sufficiently improved to enable mankind to feel and respond to the pitiful condition of the blind. But at last the refining and sensitizing of the fibre of human nature that has been going on so very slowly since the beginning of history reached the point where normal man could realize the handicaps and sufferings of the sightless, could pity and wish to relieve them. A book like this by Mr. French, recounting that story, ought to be an encouragement to men and women everywhere because of the proof it gives that mankind is getting better and not worse. Not that the author is in the least concerned with that phase of his theme. He is far too much absorbed in his exposition of how in successive epochs the blind have been treated by those who see to philosophize upon the implications of his narrative. His story is the result of years of concentrated interest in the practical and theological phases of modern methods of dealing with the sightless and in the history of the subject, and therefore it is thoroughgoing and comprehensive.

Mr. French, who is principal of the California School for the Blind, and for years has been especially interested in his phase of education, takes up, in the first section of his book, the history of the attitude of society toward those who do not see, beginning with the Greeks, the Egyptians, the Jews, and other ancient peoples, and carries the story down through medieval times, the first glimpses in the eighteenth century of better possibilities for the sightless, the founding of the first school for the blind in Paris by Valentine Haüy, the earliest attempts to educate them in Germany, England and the United States, the invention of Braille and later developments. The second half of the book is concerned with modern ideas and analyzes and critically discusses the recent special methods in the education of the blind, the vocations and avocations that are within their possibilities, and certain social aspects of their care and education.

Later chapters recount and discuss the changes that are in progress in these matters and the advanced ideas that are being taken up. Mr. French writes with vigor, and imbues his pages with much of the zest in his subject that he himself obviously feels. His book is so filled throughout with the human interest of his theme that one does not need to be especially concerned with its subject to feel its attraction. But it will be of very great value and interest to those engaged in the education and care of the blind, both because of its authentic and very readable history and for its stimulating and suggestive critical discussion of modern methods.

## Proceedings of the World Conference on Work for the Blind

Edited by HELGA LENDE, EVELYN C. MCKAY, and SHERMAN C. SWIFT.  
American Foundation for the Blind,  
New York City. 1932. \$5.00

No one engaged in educational or welfare work for the blind should miss this comprehensive volume which deals with practically all of the many special problems of the blind. It is, undoubtedly, the most informative and the most valuable reference work in its field; in fact, it is an up-to-the-minute encyclopedia.

There is such a wealth of information and discussion in this book that it is difficult to select individual sections for comment. The World Conference on Work for the Blind which was held in New York City in April 1931, was attended by delegates from 32 countries; it was the most widely representative gathering of workers for the blind ever assembled. The Conference was held under auspices of the American Foundation for the Blind, the American Association of Instructors of the Blind and the American Association of Workers for the Blind, in co-operation with the American Braille Press for War and Civilian Blind, Inc.

The scholarly papers dealing with the education of the blind published in these Proceedings give one an excellent panorama of the possibilities for developing potential talents within the blind child. However, "the sensitiveness of the blind child should be treated as gently as possible" explains Professor Donatien Lelievre, Director, Institution Regionale des Sourds-Muets et Jeunes Aveugles, Bordeaux, France, who

says: "Although physically handicapped by the loss of sight, the blind child is convinced, and rightly so, that in intelligence, in sensibility, and manners, he is perhaps the equal of the seeing". Professor Lelievre adds:

"To complete the musical training of the blind child, it is indispensable to have him hear classical music and even to go to concerts and the theatre. Use of the perfected phonograph with "pick-up", now made possible through the *American Braille Press* and its distinguished and devoted President, *Mr William Nelson Cromwell*, will greatly help training along these lines".

Many valuable supplementary papers, submitted to the Conference but not read, are published in the Proceedings. One of the interesting papers in this group is a report on "The Blind in the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics" by Vladimir Alexandrovitch Viktoroff, Chairman, All-Russian Society for the Blind, Moscow. According to this report, "The blind have absolutely the same rights as the sighted in the Soviet Union." The number of the blind in Russia, disclosed by the census of 1926, is 335,000 or 15.8 blind persons per 10,000 of population. Mr. Viktoroff states:

"In the Soviet Union the blind can work in the Communist party, the League of Young Communists, the pioneer organizations, trade unions and social organizations on an equal footing with the physically normal, and they enjoy equal rights in regard to being elected to the Soviets where they now have over a hundred deputies. The wages of the blind are equal to those of physically normal people. The efficiency

of the blind worker is, in the main, Scientific Research is now engaged no lower than that of those who in organizing the placing and training of the blind on a scientific basis." have eyesight. The Institute of

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## EDITORIAL

One must certainly love the blind but one must, above all understand them, discern their pathetic pride and their ardent wish to demonstrate their social value. One must aid them in this spirit showing them an effectual but forceful sympathy, surrounding them with a deep and wide affection without weakness, imparting to them a sense of their responsibilities and the joy of collaboration.

The world of the blind... what a pitiful expression! But is there really a world of the blind? There is no doubt about it by reason of special education and instruction

and of distinctive treatment of which the blind are the recipients. Poets and writers have taken a delight in considering and describing a psychological type for the poor beings deprived of sight. Yet the blind remain different individuals with different personalities. The milieu in which they exist, occupations which they follow, culture received and their own sensitiveness make them dissimilar. A physical type of blind no more exists than an invariable psychological type. The world of the blind is an expression, it must not be a reality.

From the time of St. Louis the

blind have been cared for. From Haüy and Louis Braille's time efforts have been centered in liberating their intelligence and life.

Manual crafts and liberal professions have been opened to them. A large number of charities manifest solicitude for them.

Now the blind, without discrediting charitable organizations, are desirous to obtain independence through the right to official assistance, through education and work.

Blind solidarity through organized action, soliciting direct support which they need from public authority, is now inclined to supersede charitable movements.

Each method has its adepts and its traducers, there are meetings and discussions —each side wants to carry his point—all may be in abso-

lute good faith, but some are right and the others are wrong.

Ingenious theories of a Claude Bernard, a Pasteur or a Forest were condemned to discredit by their contemporaries. Galilee was burnt at the stake for declaring fundamental laws of cosmography, so there is nothing astonishing that unjust critics assail eager blind who are concerned with the emancipation of their unfortunate brethren through the culture of their minds, appropriate work and equitable State aid. They work to loose them from a strange and pitiful world. How can one be unconscious of the peerless power of this evolution and solidarity on the part of "those who have lost their sight but whose body and mind have remained intact".



# THE NEW YORK INSTITUTE FOR THE EDUCATION OF THE BLIND CENTENARIAN

By Principal EDWARD M. VAN CLEVE.

One hundred one years ago, on March 15, 1832, to be exact, the first class of blind children was taught in the United States. The teacher was a young physician, John Dennison Russ, who had but lately returned from an extended sojourn in Greece where he was dispenser of aid from America to the inhabitants of that country struggling for independence. As a physician he saw in New York many cases of blindness, for there had occurred an epidemic of an eye disease which left disaster in its wake. He was touched by the condition of a group of sightless boys whom he observed, untaught and enduring the tedium of idleness, and he determined that he would seek an opportunity to help them.

Meanwhile, a well-known business man, a Friend, Samuel Wood, had been similarly affected by the sight of these blind youth and he had with Dr. Samuel Akerly, physician, lately Superintendent of the Institution for the Deaf, scholar and philanthropist, taken steps to organize an Institution for the Blind. These three combined forces and the beginning of education of the blind in the United States was the result. Thus was established

the New York Institution for the Blind which for these one hundred and one years has held on its beneficent way.

In rented rooms for a year and a half the pupils were taught, their number increasing from six to sixteen and then a more desirable arrangement was made whereby a country house of a leading merchant was turned into a home for the Institution; and on this site was soon built the stone structure which for 87 years furnished accommodations for the growing school.

Russ gave an impetus and a direction to the work that carried through many years, though he himself remained less than three years in charge of the school. The teachers who followed and the superintendents who directed the affairs of the new establishment were devoted and sympathetic. Their impulses were to a large degree humanitarian. To the pupils the Institution was a haven and many remained after school days as teachers or employees. Notable among these was a young woman of gift in writing verse, Frances Jane Crosby. She became, after some years at teaching in the school, a writer of hymns





Samuel Akerly, M. D.  
Founder and First President.

that were used throughout America and in many other parts of the world.

What began as a charity developed under a young teacher of parts, William Bell Wait, into a more definitely recognized educational institution, when he in 1863 undertook a direction of the New York Institution which lasted half a century. No one who reads the biography of this virile, dominant, devoted personality will fail to recognize a leader to be admired. He organized the establishment into a school in the strictest sense and brought it into vital and organic union with the educational organization of the State of New York. He was a student of education and he practiced and required his teachers to practice the highest tenets of pedagogy.

Wait will always be remembered for his devotion to the development and promulgation of the New York

Point System of punctography. This variant of Braille's system had many features to commend it and Wait was indefatigable in his efforts to improve the system and to extend its use. As a result of his masterful leadership more than half the schools and more than three-fourths of the readers of the United States used New York Point for many years.

Musically the New York Institution has always held high rank for its courses and for the product of its teaching. Distinguished as well as successful teachers have been on its staff. One instructor of recognized merit, Anthony Reiff, spent 28 years as leader in the music work. With him was associated, among others, the well known composer and hymnist, George F. Root. To Reiff as music



Samuel Wood, Founder.

master succeeded Theodore Thomas, he who became one of America's great orchestra leaders. And Miss Hannah Babcock was for many years a power for good in the world of music for the blind, both as teacher and as organizer of the course of study in music developed through the publications of New York Point. She was in a large sense music mistress for the whole country.

In recent years the music department has maintained its historic excellence and advanced with modern methods, notably in the application of the eurythmics of Jacques Dalcroze to the preparation of beginners in music.

Mr. Wait's successor was a musician of parts, Everett B. Tewksbury, also a man of fine literary and personal quality. It was under his administration that the long continued efforts of Wait to crystallize public knowledge of the true educational status of the establishment came to successful issue when the name of the Institution was changed to the New York Institute for the Education of the Blind.

It fell to the lot of the writer to be administrator of the Institute's affairs when the plan for removal from the site, once "a place in the country", at Ninth Avenue and Thirty-fourth Street, to the present location was brought to fruition. This came to pass in 1924 after ten years of preparation following his assumption of the duties of Principal. On sixteen acres in a residential part of New York City are provided school accommodations and living quarters for from 160 to 200 pupils, in buildings of simple construction but comfortable and commodious, and with a campus which generously provides for outdoor exercise and recreation.



William Bell Wait (in 1863)  
Superintendent and Principal to 1905.

To the usual school term of nearly ten months the Institute adds a summer session of six or more weeks, thus making use of its distinguished facilities for practically the whole round year. On occasion representative pupils of other schools for the blind have been invited to enjoy with the Institute's own pupils the unusual privileges of the summer session which takes the form of both work and play—work at regular school subjects in the mornings, excursions and recreation in the afternoons.

Another extension of the service of this school is its invitation to graduates of other schools for the blind, who give promise of benefit, to spend a year of postgraduate study in music and enjoyment of the advantages of New York as a musical center.



Schermerhorn Hall. — The Main School Building.

It was appropriate that with exercises of dignity and pith the Institute should in 1932 celebrate its centennial. Distinguished speakers, Hon. George Wickersham, former Attorney-General of the United States, a past member of the Board of Managers of the Institute, and Dr. John H. Finley, educator, editor, publicist, made the principal addresses on the occasion of the celebration of the centenary on the evening of March 15, 1932. Pupils and others contributed to the program. Then on succeeding days there were given in dramatic form pages from the school's one hundred years of history. And with these members of the alumni association brought their contribution.

Of 1925 pupils who have enjoyed the privileges of this great school some have won distinction in various fields, in the ministry, in business, in music, in teaching, in the law, in politics, with the pen. Many have served their fellow blind in helpful ways, and many more have made useful and worthy careers as citizens.

To the successful ongoing of the work of the Institute citizens of renown as well as citizens of generous feeling have from its beginnings contributed their services or of their means or both. The names of Astor, Stuyvesant, Boorman, Grosvenor, Wood, Phelps, Jumel, Van Horn, Holbrook, Bogert, Robbins, Delaplaine, Crosby, Moore,





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Schermerhorn, Rhineland, Gould, Davis, to mention only a few of those who are enrolled in its catalog of supporters, recall distinguished services or useful contribution to the life of America's metropolis through these one hun-

dred years. Its Managers have been from the first and to the present day men of importance and large affairs in the life of the city. To the upbuilding of its reputation they have given the prestige of their influence and personality.

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# WELFARE WORK ON BEHALF OF THE BLIND : HAVE WE AN INTERNATIONAL POINT OF VIEW ?

BY BEN PURSE\*

Head, Services to the Blind Department, National Institute for the Blind,  
Britain : Hon. General Secretary, National Association of the Blind  
of Great Britain and Ireland.

Within recent years, owing to the rapid means of communication, every country in the world has been brought into closer relationship. For the most part, isolation is a thing of the past and no one can say, with any degree of accuracy, that state boundaries are any longer inaccessible. In like manner it is being borne in upon us that there is a sense in which no nation can be regarded as entirely independent of the rest of mankind, and these considerations are all important because they tend to dissipate misunderstandings and make us realise that the interests of one community are largely bound up with those of the great human family to which we all belong.

In the sphere which we call the blind world there is an equal identity of interests; no one section is independent of the rest, and in these times we can no more think of acting entirely independently than we can dream of disregarding the progress that has been achieved during the

past decade. To the query then which stands as the sub-title of this article we should be in a position to reply unhesitatingly in the affirmative. We have, or ought to have, an international point of view on blind welfare work, which is capable of being assimilated by every community throughout the civilised world, and we are venturing to think that the days are rapidly approaching when we will be able to lay emphasis upon the fact and feel, in no uncertain fashion, that the concerns of one country are inextricably bound up with the interests of all the rest, and that an injury done to one is an offence perpetrated against all.

Our immediate task, however, is to address ourselves to the consideration of a problem, or set of problems which intimately affect non-seeing people everywhere, and in this connection we venture to think that there are so many ties which bind us together that common action must, in the future, be regarded not only as desirable but as inevitable. Our system of Braille read-

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\* Blind

ing and writing has opened up vast-avenues of communication for us which would have been regarded twenty-five years ago as being extremely idealistic, not to say Utopian. Two great world agencies are in a large measure responsible for this magnificent achievement; I refer to the American Braille Press and the National Institute for the Blind, Britain. The inspiration which is guiding and controlling these movements is progressive in the correct sense of the term. Their activities are not confined to any religious order, sect or creed, and the universal appeal they make is the basic reason for their colossal success. No one political party can be said to influence their policies. They stand, and rightly so, supremely independent of all. Thus their status in world councils on blind welfare work is permanent and assured.

Beginning, then, from these premises it should be possible to build up a world organisation capable of rendering tangible service to those interested in work for the blind everywhere. Such an organisation need not, and indeed must not, usurp the functions which properly belong to the separate agencies operating in the various countries. Its business should be to collect and distribute information and, by wise propaganda work, so to circulate and diffuse that information that a common policy may be pursued in every country with such variations only as must be reconciled with, and correlated to, the relevant social and industrial conditions. There ought to be no necessity to clothe such an organisation with any garb of mystery, nor to seek for it a state of opulence that will cause it to forget the primary purpose for which it was called into being. There is always a danger, when contemplating

these new creations, to attempt to surround them with an atmosphere which is quite foreign to the objects and purposes of their origin and they are, therefore, apt to lose the conception of their real usefulness by contemplating merely their own glorious existence.

An international organisation such as we conceive, should never be permitted to fall into the hands of persons whose primary interests can easily be divorced from the exercise of the true functions to be performed by such an agency, and this position can be best avoided by requiring every country in the federation we envisage to make a sensible contribution towards the maintenance of the organisation which it thus deems to be essential.

There can be no doubt whatever of the need which all of us feel for a central organisation that could undertake properly defined duties and responsibilities, and, if we were asked to say in precise terms what the functions of such an agency should be, we would find no difficulty in so doing. Let us, therefore, place upon record certain specific duties that could be so discharged, in order to have a clear view as to the direction in which we are travelling and the purposes for which such a journey is contemplated.

1. Those countries that have, within recent years, made considerable advances in welfare work on behalf of the blind should be enabled to pool their information and experiences in order that the nationalities that have not been quite so favourably situate may be inspired to renewed effort by having at their disposal accurate and reliable data. This information could best be conveyed to them through the medium of a central bureau where they could



always count upon having practical guidance and help.

2. Such a central organisation should be in a position to collect statistics having reference to all vital aspects of problems that have been dealt with in the respective countries, and it should bear in mind the experience of those advanced nationalities who have a complete system of registration at their disposal, so accurate and so reliable as to constitute a pattern for the rest. This detailed information would then be made available to all who can reasonably profit from the services the bureau would thus be enabled to render.

3. Whilst making due allowances for the different economic situations that prevail throughout the civilised world, such a bureau could very well concentrate on those aspects of welfare work which are at once comprehensive and administered with reasonable economic efficiency, so as to give guidance to all who are needing the help of precedent combines with a knowledge of procedure.

4. Such an agency, by reason of its firsthand information, would be in a position to make practical suggestions for the interchange of literature and apparatus, in order that world production can be regulated and also supplied under the most advantageous economic conditions. The boon that would thus be conferred upon the blind community would be incalculable. We all know how costly production now is, and anything which would enable us to reduce costs appreciably, by making world-wide demands for certain commodities, would of necessity be welcomed by all who are concerned with economic production of the best apparatus that skill and ingenuity is capable of devising.

5. Having in mind the importance of doing everything that is humanly possible for the prevention of blindness, a central bureau, collecting information on this subject and making it available to every other country, would not merely stimulate interest in the subject but would also have at its disposal all those important factors which have tended to minimise the percentages of defect arising from innumerable causes. Thus we would be able more effectively to concentrate on those diseases which are the most prolific sources giving rise to permanent injury and defect. The advantages that would thus accrue to those countries who are backward in things concerning the blind, cannot be estimated, whilst in the more progressive lands prevention would be made much more of a living issue than it would appear to be to-day. Every country in the world needs to be better informed upon this problem, and nothing short of an international office will be able to create and stimulate an enlightened public opinion which will be moved to action by reason of the fact that reliable data will be available with which to work for the general reduction of the incidence of blindness.

6. It will be generally agreed that there is a common need for an educational policy that can be made applicable to the blind throughout the world. Those advanced countries that have already secured statutes making the education of the blind compulsory have benefitted enormously from such provisions but it is to be feared that in many countries existing arrangements cannot be regarded as satisfactory in any sense whatever. Sometimes even where a statute exists it is applied indifferently or not at all, and





Ben Purse.

the consequence is that blind children do not receive that measure of education which in their interest it is desirable should be secured to them. This is indeed a very serious matter to all who are concerned with social betterment, and it is our considered opinion that a central organisation, having at its disposal reliable information in this connection, would always be in a position to give practical guidance and assistance in any country where it was found desirable to stimulate interest in educational matters. This is one sphere of activity in which a world organisation would be able to play an important part, but it is by no means limited in conception to this particular branch of work, for in general education it is conceivable that a central bureau could render immense service even to the most

advanced countries by keeping them in touch with various developments that are taking place in all parts of the world and, at appropriate times, the services of such an agency would be invaluable in arranging both for the interchange of teachers and of students in order to affect a broadening of the basis of general educational work. In this direction there is no limit to the good results that could be achieved by having at our disposal a well-equipped world organisation possessing an enlightened conception of its duties and responsibilities.

7. Those of us who are closely associated with problems concerning training and employment are often sorely perplexed by reason of the limited number of pursuits that are available for the absorption of the energies of trainees. We know that most of the occupations are overcrowded and that they are not very remunerative. Indeed were it not for the fact that after training a subsidy on wages becomes available, the position would be intolerable. We are convinced, however, that these limitations are imposed upon us because we have failed to conduct research work with that systematic attention and thoroughness which can alone yield satisfactory results. Various organisations have done their best to cope with the problem and have undertaken a limited amount of research work, but their efforts have not been very successful for a variety of reasons which we cannot enter into here. There is no activity which is so important and none so urgently necessary as that which will undertake, with as little delay as possible, the business of research, for the future well-being of the blind community depends absolutely upon our being able to bring into commission a larger number of occupations

in order that the wage-earning capacity of the sightless citizen may be raised to a much higher level. A central bureau, being charged with the responsibility of collecting information from all parts of the world could give much helpful advice and guidance on an important matter such as this and might eventually be able to organise such an activity more satisfactorily than it could be undertaken in any one country. Research work, to be done thoroughly and effectively, is costly and it may be that the sparse results that have so far been secured are due in some measure at least to the lack of means with which to undertake this important task. It is very certain, however, that a world organisation could bring to the solution of this difficult problem much knowledge and experience that is at present lacking in the various countries that are striving against very great odds to find a way of escape. We are sometimes told that it is futile to talk so much about the employment of non-seeing people in a world that is confronted by an abnormal period of industrial depression. In Europe and America, it is said, there are probably about thirty million people at present unemployed and, therefore, to talk under such circumstances of the possibilities of employing persons who are not 100 % efficient is merely to trifle with great issues. No one, we think, is disposed to underestimate the gravity of the present industrial situation, but to fold our arms and to admit that we can do nothing more because of the serious economic depression with which we are confronted would be fatal. We are realists in every sense of the term and, whilst it is recognised that the present situation must fill us all with the most profound anxiety and concern, we

are interested in a particular section of the community that is more handicapped than the rest, and it is our business on every conceivable occasion to make their interests paramount and to affirm that when the present serious depression has passed there will be a place in the scheme of things for those non-seeing people who have been carefully trained and who, when given the opportunity to which they are naturally entitled, will be able to make a sensible contribution towards their own maintenance. Research work carefully undertaken by a competent organisation will enlarge these opportunities by placing at our disposal avenues of work into which we have not thought it possible to enter so far because of the lack of adventurous investigation.

Those of us who have an intimate knowledge of the various forms of employment followed by blind persons in our own country should be in a position to communicate that information to some central authority that will be competent to make the widest possible use of the facts so given. In this way it is conceivable that the sphere of employment would be extended, and the avenue of work that is successfully explored by us could be just as easily utilised in other countries. It is information of this kind, definite and practical, which we are anxious should be distributed throughout the civilised world in order that competent blind persons in countries other than our own may take advantage of any ideas that may be fruitful of results. In like manner we can, doubtless, benefit by having at our disposal similar facts concerning industries and pursuits practised elsewhere. Thus a general enlargement of the facts of living as operated throughout the world would be of

immense value to every individual country, and in this way the bureau would more than justify its existence. We are no longer so intensely national that we fail to recognise that every country may have something that is of value to the rest to contribute to the common stock. No one in these days is foolish enough to reject a proposal because the country of its origin is, say, Germany, or France, or Italy, or England, or the United States. We have to live together and work together for the common interests of all concerned, and no national achievements are so insignificant as to lead us to look askance at them because they are not born within the confines of our own land. Just as no one nation can claim a monopoly in ideas. They are intended for the service of mankind and their purpose is best fulfilled when they are as widely diffused as possible.

8. Those of us who have had any considerable experience of the administration of relief laws as they apply to the blind community realise how essential it is that the experience we have gained and the knowledge that is at the disposal of other communities should be made accessible to all who are interested in this problem. In Britain we have a blind population of approximately 70,000 persons, of whom about 70 % are classified as unemployable. It is realised that we have to encounter a legacy of disease and neglect and that the incidence of blindness in respect of those in advanced years is a considerable one. Looking broadly at the position, however, it is most desirable that we should be able to ascertain whether other countries have such a statistical record and whether practical steps can be taken to reduce this appalling percentage of inefficiency. At present

the information we possess is too scanty and too meagre to enable any appropriate action to be taken, but, given the assistance of an organisation that would be competent to secure information from all parts of the globe, we would eventually be able to arrive at definite conclusions and formulate a constructive policy for dealing with the situation because of the increased knowledge that would be at our disposal. We venture to think that no one competent to express an opinion can be at all satisfied with the tremendous costs that have to be encountered by making monetary provision for so vast a number of unemployables. In Britain, for example, this figure cannot be far short of £ 2,000,000 per annum. It is not that a great community manifests any unwillingness to make reasonable provision for its afflicted citizens, but we ought surely to know whether our method of dealing with this type of case is the best that intelligent administration can devise, or whether there is any other available means by which this legacy of inefficiency can be transformed in order that the financial burden may be less oppressive either to the state or to the individual. We need to know a great deal more about the common practices that are adopted in other countries in relation to this and every other phase of welfare work on behalf of the blind, and it seems to us that this object can be best achieved by calling into existence a central office, the specific business of such an organisation being that of keeping in intimate touch with the administrations throughout the world.

In reply to the question, then, as to whether we have an international point of view we think sufficient will have been said to show that there is justification for the conten-



tion that an international bureau should be set up for the purpose of taking cognizance of all matters relating to the social and industrial well-being of the blind. It is apparent that the need for such an organisation is realised by many persons of standing, but whether that number is sufficiently large and sufficiently influential to bring about this much needed institution is difficult, at the moment, to say. The world economic position has, doubtless, somewhat retarded the progress of the idea, but there is no reason why we should not be talking about it to our friends and acquaintances and doing such propaganda work as

is essential in our own countries in order to produce an atmosphere that will be propitious of the result for which we are striving when the days of prosperity once more return. Until those times arrive there is much important work we can undertake in our ownlands to stimulate and strengthen that international approach without which we cannot bring the idea to fruition. If there is a real necessity for the reform we have endeavoured to outline in this article, then, given the co-operation of men and women of goodwill, it cannot be unduly delayed, for we belong to the fraternity whose motto is, "Nulla vestigia retrorsum".

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# WHAT DO WE EXPECT FROM INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION AND WHAT ARE THE PROSPECTS OF THE AMSTERDAM INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS FOR THE BLIND IN 1934?

By Dr. CARL STREHL\*

Direktor der Blindenstudienanstalt, Marburg/Lahn, Germany.

A retrospective historical survey shows that already in 1871, encouraged by Director Pablasek, Vienna, invitations to a congress were sent by Dr. Ludwig August Frankl, Vienna, to directors of institutes for the blind of the whole world. The main idea took root in a general discussion between directors of institutes for the blind, school masters and teachers, concerning the fate of the blind and its possible improvement. In 1873, the first European congress of Teachers of the Blind was held in Vienna, Austria, in which delegates of thirteen different nations participated, from Africa, America, Denmark, Germany, England, France, Italy, Austria-Hungary, Russia, Spain, Scotland, Sweden and Switzerland. These assemblies held every three years were international in character until the 20th. century as the confraternity of all European countries and North America were invited every time and were repre-

sented frequently. In 1876 the second European Conference for Teachers of the Blind convened at Dresden, Germany. Delegates of many nations were also present there. In 1879 the title was changed and the word "European" omitted; from that moment the conferences were called "Congress of Teachers of the Blind". In this way they did not exclude participation by delegates of other countries, but the movement was not outwardly designated as an international one. Among other international conferences the following have taken place:

1. International Congress in Paris, France, for the Improvement of the Lot of the Blind, 1879.
2. International Congress for the Blind at Brussels, Belgium 1902.
3. International Congress for the Welfare of the Blind, London, England, 1902.
4. International Congress for the Welfare of the Blind, Edinburgh, Scotland, 1905.

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\* Blind

5. International Conference for the Blind in Manchester, England, 1908.
6. International Congress for the Welfare of the Blind in Naples, Italy, 1909.
7. International Congress for the Improvement of the Lot of the Blind, Cairo, Egypt, 1911.
8. International Conference for the Promotion of Blind Welfare, Exeter, England, 1911.
9. International Conference for the Blind, London, England, 1914.

These last named are reunions of sighted teachers of the blind, friends of the blind and blind people. "The International Association of Blind Students" consists exclusively of blind with headquarters at Geneva, under the presidency of Jean-Jacques Monnier, founded in 1900. This Association organized three international meetings, the first July 10-13, 1925 in Paris, France, on the occasion of the centenary of Braille writing, the second September 11-12, 1926, in Assisi, Italy, the third September 10-12, 1927 in Marburg/Lahn, Germany. These meetings of blind intellectual workers aroused the idea of a big international conference of intellectuals. The advantages accruing from the international congresses from a theoretical standpoint are many-sided; practical results cannot be directly shown, but they are surely actual.

What do we expect from international co-operation and what are our expectations from the Congress for the Blind to be held at Amsterdam in 1934?

Everyone who was in Vienna in 1929 and in New-York in 1931 asks himself these questions. The whole international world followed the results of both of these conferences with interest and still to-day questions come from all countries manifesting the continuity of the bond of

friendship formed between many big and small nations. If Vienna was the beginning of the ascent, New York attained the summit of hopes and desires whose fulfillment await the future. During the general meeting and discussions held in the evenings, the 1931 reports, as well as the résumé at the end of the conference met with a powerful echo, not only in those memorable days of April 13-30, 1931, but much farther afield, in the entire international press. One believes in the consummation of some of these ingenious ideas, without ignoring the obstacles which stand in the way of their development. It is certain that some of the ideas are and will remain valuable stimulation accepted as such by participants and readers of the reports, the ideas however will be carried through here and there in different ways according to the needs of various countries and peoples. A number of problems nevertheless remain open which can only find solution in one common accord. To make this possible, one unified basic program is essential, Accomplishment implies a world viewpoint, reaching beyond the national, also in the domain of blindness, into international unity in the realization of ideas. The entireness of the problem demands besides intellect and practical objectivity, positive eradication of every individual unit. Is this plan at hand? Has a soil been prepared where the seed sown at the last two international conferences can germinate and with labor and care ripen into fruit? We were of this opinion when we left New York. Far-seeing men like a William Nelson Cromwell and M. C. Migel have declared themselves ready under certain guarantees, to supply the means for three years to establish an international bureau. The plan to estab-

lish such a center, with headquarters in Paris, the Capital of France, the country which produced Valentin Haüy and Louis Braille would certainly have been agreed to by the 113 representatives of 37 nations. The by-laws necessary for the establishment were made by a small committee and agreed to by all the elected delegates and conveyed to the loyal hand of the two founders. Already in the autumn of 1931 we expected the executive committee to carry out the plans made in New York for the organization of the International Bureau. In the meantime conditions became fundamentally changed. The solemn promise of united fulfillment of this international idea was not kept by all, or was it that the difficulties of economic conditions were the cause of hardly one nation present in New York being able to decide to agree to a financial subscription to the Foundation? There were everywhere important national questions for the blind, whose own solutions required the means of each and often also the few heads and help at hand. To some national leader the choice of the executive committee did not seem to be in the interests of his countrymen. For the one there were too many, for the other too few blind on the committee. These different viewpoints led to new attempts to set in motion the international blind plan, without the least intention of rivalling the existing foundations, such as the „World Union of Organizations for the Blind“, with headquarters in Paris under the directorship of Paul Guinot and the “World Blind Subscription Fund” in connection with the “World Blind Trust”, with headquarters in Dantzig, under the directorship of Godfrey F. Mowatt, London. It would be interesting to

discuss the pros and cons of these new comets or stars, but lack of space and perhaps a certain shyness of touching upon the subject, prevents me from approaching it in this article. Added to the purely material were probably also psychologic moments in which it appeared to Messrs. Migel and Cromwell impractical to consummate at the time the agreement made in a moment of great international fraternization; the world economic depression, the lack of confidence in co-operation of peoples etc. Other questions apparently are playing an important role, which after surmounting the big material and moral obstacles are surely capable of settlement; the choice of a suitable Director of the Bureau etc. Let us quietly bury our own wishes with regard to the World Bureau for the Blind, then we shall approach real possibilities. If we do not do this we shall never arrive at a real international understanding. If we examine these causes reasonably and practically, we must recognize that all expectations are subject to concessions and we owe these concessions to the great common cause so that international co-operation be not endangered. If we ask in what domain of blindness a common solution can be hoped for in this way I would like to mention only a few points without laying claim to completeness. These are perhaps questions which appear to some more and to others less important. Nevertheless they can prove that for the sake of progress we must work from the standpoint of international co-operation and we can in that way only expect the final solution of these problems. In the first place I mention the conception of blindness, which today seems to be different everywhere. There is a scientific and

a practical definition. The latter however shows such variation of interpretation in many countries that in the interest of schools for the blind, training schools and welfare centers, it would be desirable to decide on a uniform definition. In closest connection with such a specific definition are the statistics of the blind which can only be used as a basis for proposals of reform for social and welfare centers, if one can rely on a definite rule eliminating all sources of error in this regard.

The question of uniform psychology of the blind is interesting and profitable though it is perhaps not absolutely essential, and in this connection blind pedagogy, and of greater consequence the creation of a systematized writing for the blind. The abolition of postal and customs tariffs, the creation of really good, simple machines at internationally reduced prices and other technical appliances; the introduction of one single safety sign for circulation; a uniform stamp for goods made by the blind; the production of an international newspaper in several languages handling present international problems of the blind are examples which could be multiplied ten-yes, a hundredfold, yet they are enough to make apparent to those standing aloof the necessity of international co-operation in this field. This urgency of international importance in the blind world forecasts three conditions:

1. Renunciation of personal, even if justifiable, wishes and demands.
2. Redemption of the magnanimous and generous promises given us in New York.
3. Confident co-operation between those who took up international work again after the war for our

technical needs and those who through their financial power can supply them.

In 1929 at Vienna an executive committee for the organization of the International General Congress for the Blind and 21 commissions were appointed for the development of technical questions, treating the following subjects:

1. Hygiene.
2. Training.
3. Instruction.
4. Questions concerning the weak-sighted.
5. Libraries and complete catalogues.
6. Musical Notation.
7. Mathematics, Chemistry, Physics, Biological and Geographical devices.
8. Greek, Latin, Hebrew, Phonetics.
9. Print for the blind and technical expedients.
10. Museums for the blind.
11. Legislation.
12. Welfare.
13. Future Care.
14. Pensions for the blind.
15. Guide dogs.
16. Legal Disposition of providing work for the blind.
17. Higher careers for the blind.
18. High schools and art schools including industry.
19. Statistics.
20. Opportunities afforded women and girls.
21. A research committee to study the care of the blind and their self-help in different countries.

The executive committee of Vienna took up its work again this year. The members comprise the writer of this article as President; Paul Graesman, director of the Soest Institute for the blind, representing Germany; Godfrey Mowatt, London, England; Dr. Pierre Villey, University Professor at Caen, France; Dr. Aurelio Nicolodi, Florence, Italy; Siegfried Altmann, Director of an Institute for the Blind, Vienna, Austria;



Edward M. Van Cleve, Director of an Institute for the Blind, New York, is proposed to represent the United States of America.

It has been decided to hold the next Congress at Amsterdam in the autumn of 1934, a circumstance which will give the opportunity of electing to the committee the director of an institute in Amsterdam, Dr. A. H. J. Belzer. Amsterdam lends itself for such an international congress in a way in which few other European capitals could. We have there a number of excellent institutes such as the Pedagogical Institute for the Blind (founded in 1808 for the care and instruction of blind children from 13-20 years), the Prince Alexander Foundation (for the care and instruction of blind children from 4-13 years), the Institute for Adult Blind (Home and Workshops), the Home for Blind Women, beside various blind book and workshops, the variety of which is a source of stimulation to many an interested investigator.

The subjects of discussion proposed were:

1. The internationalization of one method of writing, (a) Hebrew, (b) Greek, (c) Latin, (d) Writing with the ordinary alphabet, (e) Mathematical and Chemistry signs, (f) Musical Notation.
2. Increasing the marketing of goods made by the blind (a) higher, (b) medium, (c) manual occupations.
3. Subsidies for the care of the blind.
4. The subsistence of International Congresses.

A discussion between members of the Executive Committee in the winter of 1932-1933 in Bâle or Cologne is anticipated to decide upon the individual lectures. Work on the above subjects will be carried on

in the summer of 1933. It must be decided that the commission working on the uniformity of a method of writing have arrived at a far-reaching understanding so that definite resolutions can be laid before the Congress for acceptance. The fourth item in the order of the day is to lead to a definite clearing-up of international co-operation with support of the hygiene section of the League of Nations at Geneva. It is clear to each of us that we can give lectures at meetings and come to concrete arrangements, one fundamental duty remains:— that of carrying out resolutions. Only one center founded by all nations, equipped with technical efficiency and means can assume this important function, if theoretical agreements are to be made a reality. Let us take one instance: A resolution is passed to regulate the Latin, Greek and Hebrew method of writing. To arrive at a common base the individual methods must be printed in inkprint and in Braille in the most diverse languages and must be presented to all the nations for formal recognition and execution. Such work demands technical and linguistic knowledge and financial means. If an agreement can be reached in Amsterdam I believe that we shall approach our international ideals with regard to the different spheres of blindness without great expense. However each of us must be willing to place his intellect and inner conviction at the disposal of the international work. If these principles meet the approval of other nations and leaders in the blind world I hope that the Amsterdam Congress planned for 1934 will not remain a dream but be made a reality to direct the work already begun, to a prosperous end for the blind of the whole world.

# GENERAL SURVEY OF WELFARE WORK FOR THE BLIND IN THE NETHERLANDS

By Dr. A. H. J. BELZER.

Algemeen Directeur, Instituut tot Onderwijs van Blinden, Huizen.

As early as 1806 members of Freemasonry assembled in meeting for the purpose of deciding on the erection of a school for the blind, and in December of that year it was opened in Amsterdam.

Beginning with three pupils, the number constantly increased necessitating removal from one place to another until a new institute was decided upon in 1883 to house one hundred pupils. This establishment too proved itself too small in the last few years so that the directors resolved to build a new institute in the district of Huizen, near Amsterdam, it was opened in September 1932.

In the course of time two more catholic institutions, one neutral and one reformed, were opened. The institutes are schools for ordinary elementary instruction as well as professional schools for the instruction of handicrafts, music, typewriting and stenography and they are boarding schools.

There are also workshops for day workers where women and men can work for a stated wage. For such as do not fit into community life there are institutions where associations care for the blind and naturally there are also Braille libraries for them.

Instruction and welfare in the Netherlands are dependent upon private contribution. All are not agreed upon\* this point. Some maintain that the welfare of the blind should be a state responsibility and taken out of the hands of private benefactors, as they aver that private assistance cannot cope with the demands which should be made on behalf of blind welfare. The majority of non-seeing people wish to have no connection with so-called charity and are urging the government to assume their entire welfare work. Educational institutions however do not agree on this point and are unwilling to become dependent on the state; they contend that the freedom necessary in their work would be wholly or partially curtailed; the workshops are also desirous of remaining under private care. It would seem best for private initiative to remain as it is, but to receive state aid where necessary. This matter is being examined by a state commission together with other affairs concerning the handicapped (blind, deaf and dumb, idiotic, etc.).

The only point upon which all are agreed is that of compulsory education for blind children which does not yet exist in our country.

To the question: "How many blind are there in the Netherlands?" I assert that no definite answer can be given as no exact statistics regarding the blind have been compiled.

The census of 1920 revealed the existence of 1949 men and 1873 women—it is not known how many there were in 1931. The population has naturally increased since 1920 so the blind population will have increased too—the actual percentage is said however to have decreased. Very few children are born blind in our country, while blindness immediately after birth due to infection occurs very rarely.

### **Educational Institutions for the Blind.**

Besides the institute erected in Huizen in 1932 near Amsterdam there is an Institute for Adult Blind. Both establishments are united and under the same direction. The buildings comprise classrooms, museum, Braille printing and binding departments, living quarters, music school with organs and study rooms, and workshops. The home for adult blind in which every inmate has his own room, comprises dining room and kitchen, a medical room for consultations and two sick wards. In the vicinity of the home there is a forest where the associates can go for walks.

The "Prince Alexander Foundation" erected in 1880 near Utrecht is for the instruction and care of children from 3—13 years of age. It was taken over by the Institute in 1924 so that both of these and the Institute for Adult Blind are



Dr. A. H. J. Belzer.

considered one organization. Children in the Prince Alexander Foundation who have reached their thirteenth year transfer to the Institute where they may remain until they are 21 years of age, when, if they wish, they can enter the Institute for Adult Blind.

Both children and adults are boarders. Men, women and children are accepted regardless of sect and every opportunity is afforded the inmates to practise their own faith. Besides thorough instruction in usual subjects and music, training is given in brush - , basket - , and mat-making to the boys and weaving and needlework to the girls.

People who have lost their sight later in life may visit the profes-



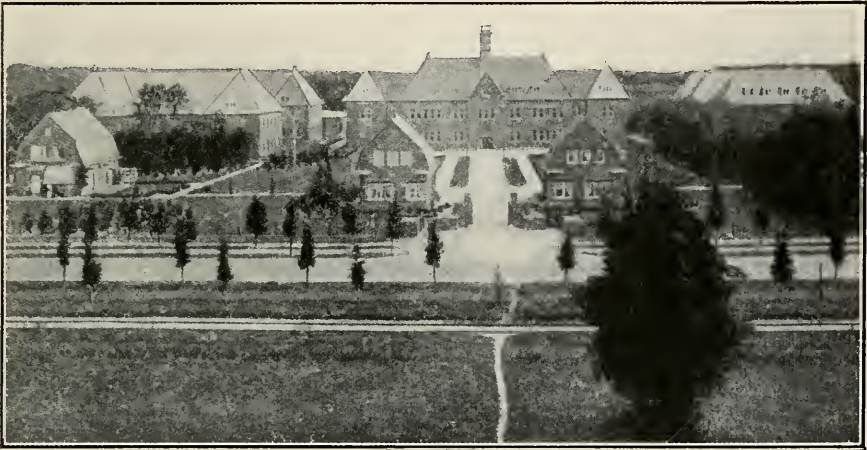
sional school for a course in handicrafts to enable them to earn their own living. Those who prefer to live at the Institute are given care and work and are paid a percentage on the sale of their products.

In connection with the Institute there is a large printing press which produces the magazine "Friend of the Blind".

In 1859 an institution "St. Henricus" was erected for catholic boys at Grave and in 1882 an institution

ian Teaching Among the Blind"; here children receive an elementary and professional grounding.

There are no colleges or universities for the blind in our country as their number would not warrant the existence of such educational establishments. Some sightless people however, have attained academical degrees through private instruction. There are no classes for the non-seeing in ordinary schools as special instruction in



Institute for the Blind, Huizen. — General View.

was formed in the same place for girls from 5 to 15 years of age. Both institutes give elementary and professional instruction. St. Henricus has a braille printing plant and a book-binding department. In connection with both there is an institute for adults who are employed in the workshops.

In 1920 a reformed school, "Bar-timeus", was founded at Zeist for boys and girls from 6 to 18 years. It was established by the "Association for the Promotion of Christ-

Institutes for the Blind has been deemed and proved more advantageous for them.

The impossibility of a blind artisan competing with the sighted or becoming completely self-supporting has been recognized and as a consequence workshops have been organized in Rotterdam, Amsterdam, Utrecht, 's Gravenhage, Middelburg, Arnhem, Groningen and Leiden, where they can come and work for a stated wage. There are moreover homes for the blind where they are



afforded shelter and occupation.

"The Association for the Promotion of Blind Welfare in the Netherlands and its Colonies", which was formed in 1881 has branch organizations in many centers. It founded a "Central Shop for Blind Workers" with the object of supplying raw materials at prices which will permit the non-seeing worker to compete with the seeing. This association gives moreover aid to the needy, subscribes to institutes giving care and instruction to the blind and provides subsidies for its local associations, whose work consists of providing work for the sightless, giving aid with money, clothing, provisions, etc...

In 1914 an association was formed with the idea of aiding pupils the first year after leaving the Institute to earn their living by procuring tools, sewing machines, pianos, etc. Former pupils and other needy blind are helped in this same way. The funds of this association help those in need of rest to go away to recuperate for several weeks.

Other associations have been formed—the blind have united themselves, unfortunately not in one organization but in three. "The Netherlands Union of the Blind", "The Netherlands Christian Union of the Blind", and "The Netherlands Roman Catholic Union of the Blind" The first mentioned advocates state aid for the blind, the two latter private aid, otherwise their dispensation of aid to the blind is similar.

### Libraries.

Every institution for the education and care of children has its own library, all books are trans-

cribed free of cost. In various towns there are public libraries the first of which was established at Gravenhage in 1888. These libraries lend, on request, braille books to people living elsewhere, several of the institutes have printing plants and supply libraries with books.

### Magazines.

The "Educational Institute for the Blind" publishes a magazine every two months in both braille and inkprint, "Friend of the Blind", which is sent on request to the blind free of charge. "St. Henricus" publishes a monthly magazine "The Religious Friend", and the three Unions produce a magazine each devoted to propaganda for the promotion of blind welfare.

### Welfare.

As before mentioned blind welfare is almost entirely in private hands—the state has so far done very little for the sightless and in these times one can expect little change, and for this reason many are not agreed that the welfare of the blind should be taken entirely out of the hands of private charity to be given over to the state. I am firmly convinced that in our country private welfare work will never disappear but that in the future the state will aid where help is necessary.

As the state is inactive in matters pertaining to the blind the elders of various communities have directed their attention to the sightless



Manual Training. — Blind Carpenters.

living in their parishes so that in many cases community welfare centers have been set up by the side of private charities, the one completing the other. In Amsterdam a civic institute has been organized which supplies articles produced by the blind to civic services who are engaged to buy them at normal prices. The workers receive a fixed wage and a percentage on the sale of their products; every blind worker receives 20-24 Gulden weekly (men and women) and they work 48 hours a week. The two workshops established by private donations are unable to exist alone so are subsidized by the community in order to pay the sightless workers a living wage. Those blind who require further instruction re-

ceive it, material aid is given and new occupations are constantly being sought for them.

It is difficult to evolve new occupations in our country as its industries are not susceptible, as those in many foreign lands, of absorbing blind labor. A few blind are employed in factories, some are masseurs, stenographers, telephone operators, but on the whole the sightless are obliged to remain at few chosen occupations as competition with the sighted in other branches is too keen. The lot of the blind in small towns and in the country villages is the hardest but steps are being taken to alleviate their condition, both Unions for the Blind and Unions of the Blind are combining their efforts to achieve this aim.

### Legal Provisions.

Existing legal provisions are only those which rule on the instruction for the blind.

In 1920 particular instruction for the blind was accorded by the State School Law (Elementary instruction) which differ in both mental and physical aspects, and it was placed under the supervision of the ministry of education and an inspector.

A royal decree provided that instruction for the blind shall be given in schools where one half or more of the pupils are from one parish or district; in central schools where one half or more are from the country. In the Netherlands all schools for the blind are central schools and all pupils are boarders. The curriculum must be approved by the inspector and contains subjects and hours like the ordinary state schools. Teachers with academic training and clergy are authorized to teach in these institutes. Children are admitted at 6 years of age; those over 17 years can be accepted only with the approval of the inspector. The

state provides a teacher for every twelve pupils and a subsidy of 25 Gulden for each child. Some provinces pay a subsidy for each child.

Only in very rare cases contributions are made to boarding schools by the parishes from which the children come so they are almost entirely dependent upon private donations and we can affirm that they have never been overlooked. The salaries of the teachers are 300 Gulden more than that received by teachers of sighted children. No compulsory education law for blind children exists in the Netherlands.

The State subsidizes neither professional schools for the blind nor homes for the care of children who nearly all are from needy or lower classes, consequently the parents are not in a position to contribute towards their maintenance.

So the education of the blind is only in part, and the daily occupation of the blind is in no way, a state responsibility. The welfare of the blind is a private affair except as beforesaid in such cases where civic aid is given for the welfare of fellow-citizens.

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# THE SOCIAL PROBLEM OF BLINDNESS

(particularly with regard to  
conditions in Czechoslovakia)

By Dr. ALEKSEJ ZAHOR

Member of the Social Institute of the Czechoslovak Republik.  
Chairman of the "Czechoslovak Central Care of the Blind".

By the Social Problem of an infirmity I understand the problem which originates through recognized social conditions not conforming to the conditions caused by the infirmity. Social order, be it in the domain of education, labor, agriculture, etc. is calculated to deal with no mal, average people. The principle of help for the weak is a rule in modern society. Abnormal and mentally or corporeally afflicted people belong in the category of the weak; an infirmity is an obstacle to their conforming to recognized conditions. It is beyond their power to surmount this misfortune, consequently it is the duty of society to organize some means of overcoming this disparity in its various forms.

When blindness is mentioned as a social problem it signifies that it occupies a special place among infirmities. Lack of sight is counted among the most formidable obstacles to development and training for life as well as to its formation and mode of living. Economically the blind are far more handicapped than the deaf or crippled. The singularity of the world of the blind is

known to everyone who shows any interest in it. One realizes that the education of the blind must be quite unusual because visual impression, which is preponderant in the development of the sighted, is of no significance to the blind. One sees that reading, study, and the usual observation of daily life is impossible to them, certain fields of work and knowledge which depend upon vision are forever closed to them and one sees too that the blind are obliged to depend on outside help for some of the simple necessities of daily life when they are in unknown surroundings.

Although we meet the blind not infrequently we know neither them nor their lives and their needs. There is in reality a perfectly strange world to us, but for the purpose of grasping the social problem I consider it necessary to give some information on the point and to touch on its psychological problem too.

We must distinguish between those who are born blind or have become so in very early youth, and those who have been overcome by blindness in later years. The



first group is comparatively small and its frequency is decreasing rapidly, thanks to progressive medical science and particularly through social health and hygiene regulations; the group is nevertheless no less important as from childhood they have to pursue their way, and they constitute the more active element in the movement for the blind.

The mental development of a child depends upon its natural ability and the method of its training. The education of blind children in their families is unfortunately frequently not rightly understood. Even with sighted children we come up against the most varied educational methods, in the case of blind children parents usually have no idea what to do. Whereas the sighted child soon begins to look round and notice its surroundings, that is impossible in the case of a blind child, consequently passivity, reserve, a tendency to inactivity are engendered and initiative is left entirely to the teacher.

It is an error to believe that blindness is counterbalanced by keenness of the other senses. Sounds which the sighted cannot hear are not audible to the blind but he can define the slightest noise much better. The person with all his senses does not take notice of acute acoustic impressions because his visual impressions impart all that he requires.

When the subjective, playful attitude of a child towards its surroundings and daily contacts begins to develop into the objective, serious position of work, the problem of blindness and its practical solution becomes important.

For the very reason that blindness sets no inner barriers to the development of psychical life, which I will

discuss later, a sharp inadequacy results between psychical ability and the very slight possibility of making use of it. That fact influences entirely further development and life itself. This outward dependence produces an inner tension with two results: These obstacles can paralyse the effort to overcome difficulties in weak individuals; in the stronger on the contrary it strengthens their endeavor to obtain the mastery. The paucity of outward impression and stimulation stirs a peculiar depth in the inner life of the blind. The influence of optical impression is naturally indisputable, but its actual lack is not so noticeable in the blind as the consequences resulting therefrom, i.e. principally through outward dependence and its resulting limitations.

The blind are distinguished among each other through talent and ability just as the sighted. One thing is not easy for all the blind nor is another thing difficult for all of them, even if one or two are, incapable of learning. The person who has a preference for intellectual occupation should not be obliged to do manual work and vice versa intellectual work should not be exacted from one who has no tendency in that direction. The blind suffers from the fact that his eager aspiration for independent education comes up against obstacles principally of a technical kind. It is a difficult matter for every blind person to become reconciled to his fate. His need is that of psychical compensation for which he must struggle with all his might and which he, after having attained it, must defend against all attacks. He only achieves it when he feels himself perfectly equal to the sighted through attaining success in a career.



Brno. — Asylum for blind girls. — Main building.

The consciousness of complete education and ability does not satisfy in itself, but only its use and demonstration. In practice we are still very far from this theory. When one sees sometimes the slowness or indecision of the blind, one is inclined to believe that all his ability is warped in the same way. That is a great mistake under which they all suffer. A blind man is a person as we are and he wants recognition of the same rights and duties as other people. He must be given this possibility through the adjustment and regulation of conditions affecting the peculiarity of his infirmity.

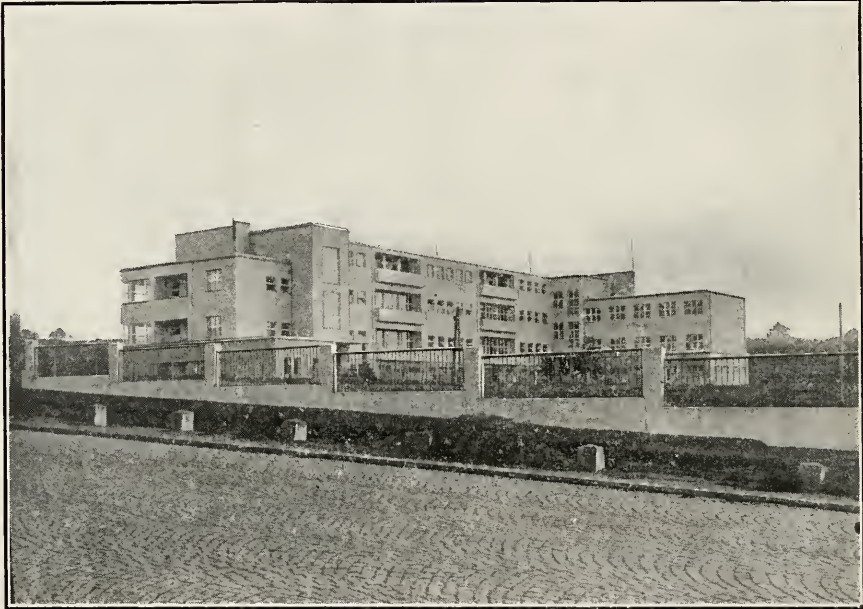
Are the blind happy? That is naturally a perfectly individual question. Stanislav Suda for instance we know was not unhappy on account of his blindness; music was his life and world. The blind American author, Clarence Hawkes,

writes in a characteristic psychological way in his biography: "I can honestly say that blindness has been a blessing to me, although my way was dark and long. If I had been able to see I should probably be a farmer somewhere in the West, but without sight I have accomplished more. That I may have been happier if I were sighted is natural, but I should never have attained that deep inner satisfaction which the success of a hard battle against adverse circumstances ensures".

The second group, by far the most numerous, consists of those who have become blind in later years. They are depressed not only at the thought of the loss of sight and visual impressions but over the contrast between their present helplessness and their former freedom and independence, as well as about their future mode of economic existence.

Every impression, whether made by the ear, touch or speech, calls up a visual picture. Those who become blind in later years are painfully conscious of being awkward and helpless. In general all the blind

fore under the same average circumstances a blind person learns to know and understand a sighted man more easily than the sighted knows him. We often observe that the blind will, if possible, avoid a



Prague. — Klar's Institute for the Blind. — New Building.

complain—this in both groups—of the lack of understanding on the part of the sighted. Prerequisite to this understanding is a knowledge on the part of the sighted of the vital conditions of the blind and their influence on the inner life. We cannot expect it from those who have no personal contact with the blind. The sightless live most among the sighted and are more or less compelled to be interested in them whereas the average sighted person rarely meets the blind. There-

situation in which he depends upon the least outside help.

Coming to the problem of occupation for the blind in general we prove that blindness is not a barrier but merely an obstacle which can be surmounted if the right method be chosen for the education of the blind and for their incorporation into the life of the seeing. Foreign countries are far ahead of us in this respect. In our country the blind are as a rule only taught basketry, machine-



knitting, brush-making, chair-caning and music (in which category playing and piano-tuning belongs). Those are so-called typical blind trades. They are seldom taught typewriting. Formerly rope-making and now mat-making is done. Our institutions tend to make musicians or manual workers out of all the blind regardless of differences. Gramophone, radio and such devices have largely replaced musicians and through the keen competition of factories with which handworkers naturally cannot cope these trades can no longer procure a living for the blind. We have made attempts to absorb part of the blind of our country in factories as Germany is doing. A lecture by the engineer Perls (of the Siemens-Schuckert Works in Berlin) and a member of the Board of Public Instruction, Niepel, from Berlin was arranged in February 1923 in Bio Svetozor, to which the Department of Social Welfare together with the Czechoslovakian Central Care of the Blind invited those interested. At the same time a pamphlet "Activity of the Blind in Industry and in Offices" in which Inspector V. Tlapak described the experiences and knowledge gained during his tour of inspection in Germany, was published. Since then the Czechoslovakian "Central Care of the Blind" has negotiated constantly with factories as well as with individuals, the result of the eight-year efforts is that we have placed twenty-four blind and partly blind in positions in Czechoslovakia, most of them in the firm of Bata in Zlin who employs eleven, then comes Ceskomoravska-Kolben-Danek (who particularly recommends them) who employs seven. In other works only one or two are employed. In our efforts to find places for our

blind we constantly come up against obstacles—it was already so before the present depression. Is it unwillingness or misunderstanding? Possibly both, otherwise one cannot understand the almost general reply of employers that in their case it is absolutely impossible, in their employment there is no work which can be done without sight, so that no attempt in this direction can be made. We envy Germany its law for badly wounded passed in 1921, originally for war wounded but which was later extended to the civil blind. This law requires every employer of one hundred to employ two wounded so where willingness and understanding are lacking this method guarantees a place for them.

It is not only a question of occupation in workshops, factories and offices, of predominating manual labor but also of intellectual work, whose paths are completely closed to the blind. It is the result of our teaching and education which is not far-reaching enough. Foreign countries have surpassed us too in the matter of secondary schools, high schools and universities which are open to the blind. (The United States of America, England, Italy, Germany and Switzerland).

One factor which bids fair for the furtherance of the education of the blind in our country is the unspeakable advance made in printing and distributing books.

The majority of countries have expressed their solicitude by a law declaring schooling obligatory to blind children. Inspector Josef Zeman in the Department of Education framed a similar Bill in 1922 for our country but political conditions balked his parliamentary pourparlers so we have only the decree of the Department of Education of 1928



which determines the plan of study for the schools of the blind.

It is obvious that a blind person who is in many ways dependent upon outside help has many more expenses under the same conditions than a seeing person, therefore the demand that the minimum tax-exempt income be much higher (about double) for the infirm and particularly for the blind, and that progressive income tax rise more slowly for them, is justified. The desire of the blind to be better

citizen and must be kept at a distance. Under these circumstances the discontent of the blind has originated and for that reason one sees everywhere that they are striving for the decisive word in things concerning the blind, and for the guidance and administration of their affairs. This ambition is perhaps theoretically well founded, it cannot however be realized everywhere as there are not enough intelligent blind in every land to assume and carry through such a task success-



Employment of the blind in factories : Two blind workers among seeing girls at the Electric Works of the C.M.K.D., Prague.

understood is explicable. Publicity and authorities do not publish it in a practical way. They are regarded as different beings who have no right to the life of an ordinary

fully. Radicalism in itself is not sufficient, maximalist ways do not lead to the aim, if they are not modified through understanding for the whole cause, for public interest

and for possibilities to be attained. The serious solution of this problem necessitates closer co-operation between the blind and sighted. The exclusion of one side or the other would ensure no success and would be neither democratic nor social.

To-day we are suffering from general depression and unemployment. Employers naturally engage those from whom they can expect the greatest output and as there are so many the infirm cannot compete with them. So unemployment among the blind is at its worst.

Very great interest is not manifested for them; there is no official international board, no State means to fight for them, only private efforts added to that of charitable concerns to relieve their condition. Yet unemployment exists unknown, unheard, unseen, because those who suffer are a comparatively small number compared with the rest and they in their misfortune stand aside so as to be no obstacle. It is none the less a vital problem for them. Unemployment is transient for the sighted for the blind it is constant and inevitable in the present state of affairs. Out of the 48 States of North America 21 have provided a pension for the blind. In Europe the Free State of Dantzic has introduced a pension for the blind. In some other places we see up to the present only attempts at something similar but which is entirely inadequate for their actual needs or to demonstrate social justice.

A pension for the blind.? To those uninterested in the cause the idea is new but it is old to those who work for the relief of the blind. How can it be explained? The primal concern of the blind is to attain a sure economic position. That is an absolute social demand. Conditions of to-day are such that

the normal, healthy man can, with the use of all his faculties, hardly win through. The infirm cannot possibly do so alone. The survival of the fittest is the law of nature, but in our days the demand of the weak for effective help from the social whole must be recognized. Modern States are conscious of their humanitarian duties and obligations vis à vis to their citizens. A



Klar's Institute, Prague.  
Mat making.

healthy State cannot permit the individuals who compose it to be discontented and materially or mentally dissatisfied. A civilized State cannot suffer those who have been ill-treated by nature to endure still more under the influence of prevailing conditions, and there is no room for doubt that the blind suffer from a material point of view far more than other infirm.

It is not question of a pension



Klar's Institute for the Blind. — The Orchestra.

which would give the recipient a life of ease but enough to protect him from the worst and would in spite of all physical disability and financial difficulties resulting from his infirmity, allow his life to approach more nearly that of a normal man. The pension should not be given to those who are in assured positions. It is a technical question to determine pensions and to graduate them so that incentive to work is not checked.

The advantages of a pension would be unspeakably great. It would be a help at the beginning of a career, assure a certain income

in the case of sickness or unemployment, ensure a greater choice of occupation, procure the possibility of help in the direction of work or in more advanced study and finally supplement the small earnings of the less capable and guarantee provision for them in old age.

The care of the weak-sighted is part of the problem of the blind, for which nothing is done in our country whereas in Austria, Germany, England and the United States so much is done for youth threatened with blindness that in most cases the sight is saved from complete loss.



# REFLECTIONS OF A DISCOPHILE BLIND MUSICIAN

By RÉMY CLAVERS\*

Professor and Conductor of the Orchestra at the National Institution  
for Young Blind People, Paris.

Since coming into contact with broadcasting, my existence has been strangely transformed. This constant contact with the outside world responds to our aspirations, recorded music was a revelation and, provided with a phonograph, I did not curb the ever-growing interest to collect a series of records with a wide and varied repertory.

By reason of the important place it occupies in France, the National Institution of Paris benefitted first by the generous gift offered by the American Braille Press to the principal schools, whose aim is to give education at the same time as an artistic or professional training to the blind, of a gramophone with a choice of records appropriate for teaching. The constant success of the auditions which I organized in this Institution demonstrates clearly the pedagogical and recreational worth of this valuable auxiliary to the musical culture of our young people.

I know that the schools which have enjoyed the same gift have appreciated it so much the more when their situation, sometimes at a distance from artistic centers,

deprives them of most of the musical entertainments which take place every season.

Unfortunately the high cost of records is not within the scope of a modest budget and for that reason such an effort must be encouraged.

With regard to myself, I have derived from my collection of records all sorts of artistic and recreational satisfaction besides practical lessons supplied by thorough musical analysis. I frequently set my gramophone going before deciding what I am going to have played from my choice of records. I open my collection, and either through a sudden inspiration or taking by chance the record at hand, the first piece sets the type of audition of works whose succession, be it logical or unthought of, completes the charm of a program so composed.

Sometimes too I have a sudden wish to hear certain works, or a momentary mood urges me to choose a particular kind of music, I then appreciate the possibility which the record at home offers, of giving immediate satisfaction to the often capricious demands of a musical temperament, as well as that of a professional obligation.

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\* Blind.



Let us only consider professional obligation here, that is the record used for analysis, or for teaching, as an example of technique and interpretation.

Although the auditory nerve is particularly keen in blind musicians, listening to a concert does not permit of analysing a piece whose score they cannot read. As a matter of fact through tactile reading of dotted relief comprising one line at a time in Braille signs, it is difficult for the blind reader to understand the ensemble of a musical text or the compass of its score. Besides, this kind of reading which is nevertheless so precious, makes immediate audition impossible to us.

What happens usually when we go to a concert? Hearing a complicated musical work without knowing enough of the plan to be able to follow the idea in its smallest details, the mind feels bewildered. One hardly appreciates—as one should—that the purely musical value of the work, without being able to justify certain of the composer's intentions which at first seem strange because they escape the listener, but which lacking a score, can be grasped and appreciated at leisure through repeated listening to a record. At a concert one listens eagerly to derive the most benefit from a succession of various works. It is the contrary when one is in possession of a record: the mere fact of being able to hear it as often as one likes serves to moderate the brain work which analysis exacts. First the style of the work under consideration is assimilated, then the rôle played by the three musical elements, melody, harmony and rhythm, and finally the details of composition and interpretation. When such a complete analysis can be made by means of a record before

hearing a concert, one gets all the benefit required besides bearing the enjoyment in mind for a long time.

Recourse to the record in the case of instrumental or vocal music which one is studying by oneself is also to be recommended. Obviously the record cannot substitute pedagogical advice and a master's experience. If one's talent is not equal to that of the artist recorded, one can at least obtain enough useful suggestions from the performance and interpretation to manage the technical part. The various interpretations which come up against one another in this way sometimes make a valuable point of comparison for a young artist's judgement.

I feel convinced that our readers will consider the record in the future as I do, not as a luxurious pastime for the blind, or as an optional complement to their musical studies, but rather as an indispensable auxiliary to their work as well as a diversion, so much the more necessary because it is more entirely accessible to them than many others. As a matter of fact it is the keenness of hearing which makes us capable of appreciating certain recorded pieces more than a sighted person deprived of his visual impressions. To realize the correctness of this statement it is enough to compare our opinion based entirely on auditory impression with that of the sighted about artists, whose vocal and scenic talent are not of equal worth.

How should a collection of records be built up? Of course records should be numerous and varied if one would escape the monotony which a limited choice creates. Although I am considering the gramophone here exclusively from an artistic point of view, it does not hinder me from recognizing in it

the great advantage of diverting the mind and of revealing facts in every domain to wise "discophiles", which in spite of being of secondary importance, should not be totally neglected. Granted this, the artistic taste and ambitions of each can, outside of all personal considerations, direct one's choice of records which are to form a collection.

An irreproachable order should reign in our collection as we cannot read the label of a record and a Braille label is too cumbersome and fragile to be thought of. To be independant of eyes when I want to hear a piece I place a special number in Braille in one of the corners opposite the opening of the case in which the record is kept. This number is repeated on an index card giving all necessary information contained on the record. The cards, carefully filed in alphabetical order of the composers serve as catalogue to my collection which is easily kept up to date. Failing memory, a little ability is enough to find an index card quickly and then the case with the corresponding number.

In principle every record is put back into its case as soon as it is taken off the gramophone and I am very careful to place the same face towards the side where the embossed number is fastened.

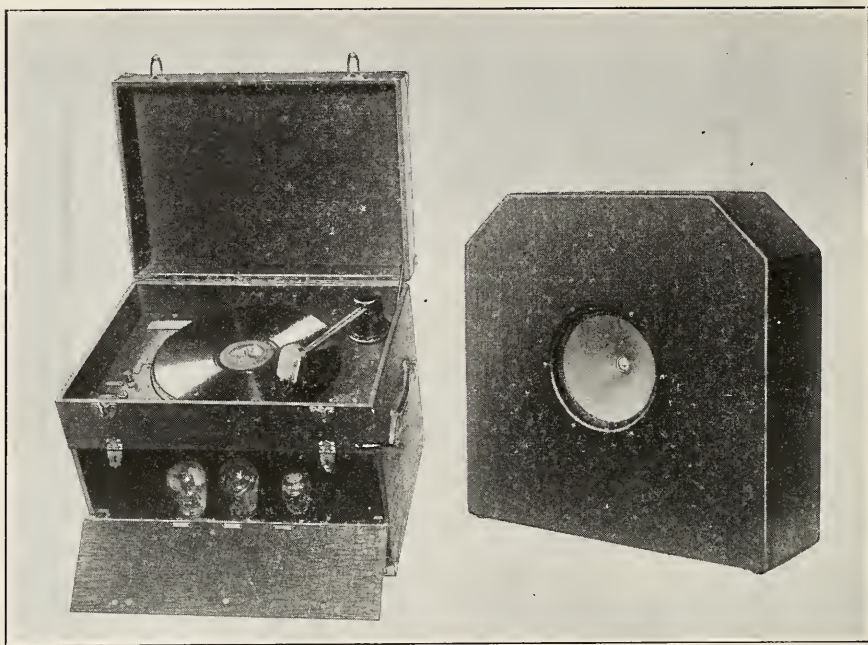
When the recording of any work comprises several records which are not in an album I join the cases with glued tape, it simplifies finding them. The records are put together in dozens in files each containing a Braille letter by means of which one can easily find the dozen in which the desired number is placed.

The placing of the needle in the first groove is usually a simple matter for us. We have to be careful

to provide ourselves with good needles as it is difficult to inspect the point. The choice of recording is not less delicate than the examination of a record; the time is not far distant when the most elementary caution will prompt one to acquire a record only after having heard it. This precaution is comparatively superfluous to-day at least with regard to the careful recording which the principal business houses deliver to us, particularly when they are signed by artists or conductors of orchestras whose reputation and talent are beyond all doubt. In spite of that, before opening the door of my collection to a new-comer, I listen to it several times a day for several days following its acquisition, not so much to gain acquaintance with the piece, for that I allow plenty of time, but in order to discern the qualities and defects of the recording. Note that the greater number of records gain in clearness and often in volume when they have been played two or three times.

The number of revolutions per minute cannot usually be carefully controlled, a trained musical ear must be informed as to the key of the piece which, moreover, the index card should always mention. If it is not known one can find out the key of a piece by comparing the record in question with another record of the same series or at least of the same production: this way of checking up is rarely at fault.

It sometimes happens that all the faces of a same recording are not exactly the same pitch; that can be remedied by a carefully studied adjustment. Care must be taken against badly centered records, against those which have oval grooves here and there, and against



Type of electric phonograph suitable for the musical training of the blind.

records which are too wavy, which is easy to ascertain as soon as one handles them.

What is to be said of certain inexcusable faults? One finds some recording which clearly indicates that commercial interests have overcome artistic sense. Undoubtedly the style of the work has been sacrificed by adopting a movement which is too quick, in abbreviating it or in omitting organ points in order to comply with chronometrical demands to reduce the number of sides. Still one must be content that a sacrilegious omission does not, to make matters worse, detract from the piece the clearness of its outline. This process of cutting is to be regretted particularly when the recording is satisfactory in every other way.

When the work requires several sides of a record it is advisable to take exact note of the cut in the text so that precaution may be taken to shorten as much as possible the inevitable interruption, the effect of which is nearly always deplorable.

It is unnecessary to add that to judge a record properly one must be sure of the perfect working of one's gramophone, not only in sound but also its mechanism; before anything else one must be certain that the rotation of the record is regular; everyone knows that an almost imperceptible alteration of this rotary movement immediately causes instability of sound, and that all modification of tonality, no matter how slight, is very disagreeable to a sensitive ear. If a record is not clearer after three or four audi-



tions it seldom gains in purity of sound after.

As to intensity of sound, it is principally dependent on the choice of needles, if it be a question of diaphragm or amplification in the case of an electric gramophone it can be remedied, certain nuances can be emphasized and the designs of the composer can be better expressed; good taste is the sole judge of that.

The untiring efforts of record-technicians bring us daily nearer perfection. The defects which I have just pointed out are disappearing or at least are much less obvious. Engineers with a carefully calculated system of amplification, and musicians experienced with the microphone attain to-day volume of sound very near reality.

Science has not said its last word with regard to the talking machine, it is probable that the most recent recording will be superior to its predecessors. Recording which showed real progress two or three years ago seems inferior to-day to a similar one executed recently.

A striking instance is found in the splendid records of Kreisler which we are fortunate to have. They render, thanks to a rather true reproduction, the marvellous technique and interpretation so characteristic of this great artist. Yet, although the greatest care seems to have been taken in their production, one notices with regret that the tone of the violin, as well as the tones of the orchestra, are perceptibly muffled and distorted. That does not prevent these records from being a real source of instruction and artistic joy.

Compare, for the sake of curiosity, one of these records with the one

which Piero Coppola and Henri Merckel have just completed of Lalo's Spanish Symphony. One admires here the way in which the smallest details of both soloist and orchestra are brought out. One is enchanted at the same time by the reality of the sounds and by the clearness of the recording, which enables a listening violinist to catch the different bowing as well as the playing with the left hand. Besides, the poise and power of the orchestra are remarkably proportioned.

I could cite many other examples which would give me the satisfaction of recording the wonderful successes of the most recent gramophone productions but I should never exhaust the list. I am satisfied in advising "discophiles" to follow up carefully articles on gramophones because in this field evolution is as rapid as it is constant.

To complete this brief study, let us consider a few characteristic traits of the evolution during the last few years. Orchestral music has become clearer so that to-day it is a pleasure to hear the various instruments reply in turn to one another, intercross, blend or melt away to give place to a solo, and to think that it all comes, not from a platform, but from a narrow circle of a loudspeaker installed at home. What a splendid triumph for Art through Science.

The tendency of gramophone recording to augment the sound seems to be more pronounced with string instruments, one wonders if there is not a direct relation between the sound of an instrument and amplification. Wooden instruments have always sounded better through the microphone. I would even say that in my case certain of these sounds are improved, they seem to suffer less from the inevitable distortion,



perhaps it is on account of their natural shrillness.

Brass instruments, at first dimmed or too much in the background, have regained their fullness at the same time as the place which they should take in an orchestra. I recall too the regrettable fact, doubtless caused by the simultaneous perfecting of gramophones and of the device of recording machines, which has deprived us of bass or has inflicted excessively heavy bass upon us.

I have no very fixed ideas regarding vocal recording: while certain choral groups have shown interesting results, others are disappointing. Perhaps there is some technical reason for it which I have overlooked, or as in radio perhaps vocal unison exacts an impeccable accuracy to make a perfectly pure recording. In this case the talent of the singers would play a more important rôle than one generally supposes.

As to solists, sometimes recording is unfair to their voice: let us admit frankly that the timbre of a voice and pronunciation are not phonographic to the same extent. Moreover every time there is a question of a fragment of theatrical works the attitude and assurance of an artist before the microphone are not necessarily equal to that inspired by the stage; the result is that a vocal interpretation may be tolerated by a spectator whose attention is absorbed by remarkable scenic effect whereas it is insufficient for the recording on a disc. Also in this respect notable progress has been achieved although one often hears that such and such a celebrated artist has not been recorded to his or her advantage.

What progress has been made too in recording the piano, so deli-

cate on account of the repercussion of long or short sounds which a mere nothing causes to vibrate. Organ recording is, it appears, difficult to record well: its recording has to be very carefully studied. Material difficulties are not always easy to overcome as one can only play an organ on the spot where it is fixed and the acoustic of the structure as well as the position of the instrument does not always correspond to the requirements of the microphone, which detracts, from resonant sounds and consequently from the quality of the recording. Then too the steadiness of long sounds does not bear alteration without suffering. However it would be interesting to have a varied selection of organ records, of artists and masterpieces of all time and of the most beautiful instruments. Let us have confidence in progress.

One need only be slightly acquainted with the extreme care which the recording of a piece exacts and with the delicate material and scientific operations to admire the results attained and to foresee a future full of promise.

As the theatre and film are clearly distinct from one another through the peculiar resources at their disposal and which gives to each an unquestionably specific character, actual and recorded audition must be judged by their respective worth. They both have charm and indisputable advantages which will prevent us from sacrificing one for the other.

At a concert it is the unexpected which is played, the revelation of a talent which one did not know or the first impression caused by a hitherto unknown work: it is the contact with the audience, whose spontaneous reaction, added to the

momentary mood, which sometimes causes a premature judgement, but it is also the satisfaction given by the interpretation of works which one knows or by the new proof of a talent which has been appreciated for a long time.

A recorded audition on the contrary has a more intimate character. In this case spontaneous reaction gives place to studied judgement, because the works as well as the interpreters are known. The impression which remembrance calls up was already stamped on the memory. One enjoys an expected sensation and admires an artist less for himself than for the way in which he has interpreted a work in

our absence and which the record gives back to us.

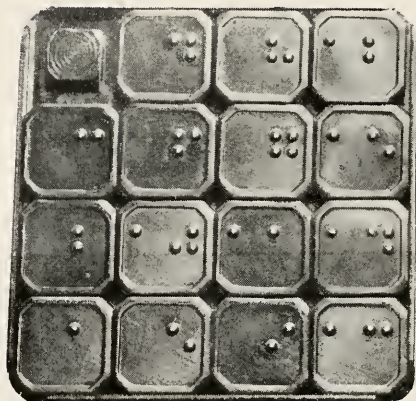
The emptiness of time will prove more every day the attraction and worth of gramophones. How much we regret having no recording of past masters illustrating bygone times and whose traditions would not be at the mercy of everyone's caprice.

We must give unreserved praise to the persevering efforts of those who combine in such a pleasant way Art and Science, thus permitting the wisest to protect themselves against a too hasty judgement formed through surprise or influence, and assuring to posterity masterpieces as well as their most celebrated interpreters.



Music class at the National Institute for the Blind, Paris.

# THE GAME OF NUMBERS FOR THE BLIND



This is the latest production in games of the American Braille Press and, judging by the great demand for it, we conclude that it has met a need of the sightless for a fascinating game which can be played alone.

It consists of a small square board with sixteen spaces, which fits easily into the pocket, its weight is nil enabling the owner to have it constantly by him. Fifteen small numbered squares are attached to the board and can be slipped in any

From 1 to 15

1	2	3	4
5	6	7	8
9	10	11	12
13	14	15	

The odd numbers first

1	3	5	7
9	11	13	15
2	4	6	8
10	12	14	

In diagonal

	d	e	t	g
c	7	11	14	
b	4	8	12	15
a	2	5	9	13
	1	3	6	10

In spiral

7	8	9	10
6	1	2	11
5	4	3	12
	15	14	13

From bottom to top

	15	14	13
12	11	10	9
8	7	6	5
4	3	2	1

etc ...

direction, the object of the game being to place the numbers in order either straight, diagonally or in spiral.

A set of sixteen problems or combinations in embossed print has been specially devised for the blind and is being sent with each game for forty four cents, including postage.

At first sight the game appears extremely simple but on attacking it the player finds its apparent simplicity more complicated. It absorbs the attention, develops mental skill and is altogether a fascinating pastime, this so much the more because suitable games for the blind are rather scarce.



Game of Numbers for the Seeing.



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## EDITORIAL

To-day all nations are suffering and are more or less troubled by difficulties which encourage neither forbearance nor friendliness between one another and as little cordiality exists between them the relationship between individuals is suffering from it, even those who are united by the bonds of tradition, culture or interest. Moreover international relations and interchange have been reduced to a minimum not only by the world-wide depression but by all sorts of obstacles encountered for some time in international trade and finally, and particularly, by the growing decrease

in the number of people of all nationalities who have enough means to travel.

This relaxation of contacts has not only a material result, it has also a grievous moral effect: it hinders reciprocal expression of viewpoints and breaks the bonds of practical solidarity or sympathy which preserved hitherto the course of international relations. Every people, every individual, more isolated and less informed becomes naturally more suspicious and susceptible vis à vis to others yet international co-operation is the order of the day— or are these

merely vain words even in the world of the blind and works for the blind? Still what benefits and advantages would accrue from it? Witness the tremendous fuss made recently in the United States about Telescopic Spectacles, and published in the newspapers of the whole world as an invention which would restore sight to at least forty per cent of the blind of to-day. This impetuous publicity which aroused false hope in many of the blind, their families and friends, has fortunately been put in its right light by a joint statement of the American Foundation for the Blind and the American National Society for the Prevention of Blindness. There are other instances in which international co-operation should play an important rôle either in refuting these rumors or if necessary, and what is less probable, in circulating results obtained, and in aiming to curb indiscriminate advertising of these experiments.

In the first place, here is an article entitled: "The All-Electric Artificial Eye Gives Sight to the Blind: It Permits Them to Read Books, Newspapers and Even Maps".

As to the description of the apparatus, it is childishly simple:

"The electric eye provided with its apparatus throws the letters, by means of blue rays, on a concave plate of aluminum. The blind person feels the outlines of the rays on the plate with the finger and can thus read them".

Do you not think that such an invention would deserve the favors of international co-operation?

Here is another originally published in "Vetcherniaia Moskva", Moscow, entitled "The Blind Will See", and reproduced practically everywhere.

"Professor Filatoff of Odessa has

just arrived at Moscow. He gave the Ophthalmological Congress a report of his work of grafting the cornea. Professor Filatoff operated on 96 sightless eyes and restored sight to 24 of them.

What is the technical nature of this operation? The doctor cuts a small slit in the cataract of the eye, inserts a piece of the cornea of a living human eye (for instance of an eye whose removal has been necessitated through a malady). In certain cases the eye of a dead person can be used. The piece thus transplanted develops and finishes by replacing the cornea clouded by the cataract.

The operation lasts from five to seven minutes, the post-operation period from two weeks to two months. For nine months the struggle between the two corneas goes on, the diseased one and the transplanted one. The success of the operation depends on this contest.

If the cornea becomes overcast it means failure, if not, the operation is a success and the blind person recovers his sight.

This operation restores sight to those blind who have lost their sight through cataract. There is greater chance of success when the cataract has not completely destroyed the cornea and where a few fragments of transparent cornea remain. In such a case the operation is fifty per cent successful. Under favorable conditions seventy-eight per cent of the operations are successful.

Professors Orlov of Kief and Mourzine of Kazan have also begun to perform such operations. The oculists of Moscow are soon going to follow suit.

This operation opens up great prospects. According to the calcul-

ations of the Department of Public Health there are 238,000 blind in the Soviet Republic, half of whom are suffering from cataract, so one could restore the sight of 12,000 blind.

The Society of Oculists of Moscow has applied to the Department of Public Health for instruments and material necessary to carry on scientific work".

This certainly is another case for international co-operation, international investigation and international dissemination.

In this issue the article by Professor Filatoff himself will be found interesting.

The conclusion of the foregoing is easy to draw and it is so clearly expressed in a letter recently received from one of our blind friends that we think it advisable to publish it here below:

...“Yes, there is at the present time a great deal of incorrect perspective in the view of work for the blind. What we need above everything else, it seems to me, is sanity, caution, honesty, which last quality implies of course an open mind. But for us to jump at every half-baked biscuit of so-called advance and swallow it whole is unwise, since it induces indigestion and considerable discomfort arising from the necessity of regurgitation. There is one thing certain, it seems to me, namely, that until the scientific miracle of replacing by some sort of artificial means the natural retina and atrophied optic nerves so as to get the image finally into the visual center of the brain is performed, Braille will never cease to have its first place

of importance. Sooner or later I believe it to be a certain realization that sight will be restored without the necessity of hacking and cutting an injured eye. Of course that objective is envisaged in connection with at least an active optic nerve and most scientists engaged in investigation along this line also consider a retina at least partially active, the main thing however being the optic nerve. Take for instance, experiments performed here in ... last year with X-ray on normal eyes. A number of radiologists were told to shut their eyes, after which an X-ray was directed on lead type and the scientists were able to read the letters quite distinctly. In conversing later with a medical friend of mine, himself no mean radiologist, he said that the penetrating power of the X-ray in this experiment was considerable.

What is to prevent, in the course of time, the discovery of some means other than X-ray, of getting the light in through diseased or injured tissue to the active part of the retina. Or again, what is there absurd in the idea of an artificial retina complete, provided the optic nerve is not atrophied or severed. A number of scientists in Europe and America are actively working in this field. Sooner or later, as I have said, success is bound to crown their efforts. Then Braille will of course be dethroned in thousands of cases, but there will always be the minority whose dead optic nerves will not respond to any stimulus whatever and these will continue to read with their fingers to the end of the chapter".



# THE CARE OF THE BLIND IN SWEDEN

What has been Accomplished and  
What Still Remains to be Done

By GUSTAF EK

Superintendent of the Royal Institute for the Blind, Stockholm.

The teaching of the blind in Sweden dates its origin, as in many other countries, from the early part of the nineteenth century more precisely from the year 1808, for it was in that year that, on an impulse from France, a school was established for the instruction in separate departments of blind and deaf people. As however the Deaf were in the majority in that institution, the care of the blind was relegated to a secondary place, and besides that it was discovered in the light of experience that it was not very suitable to combine two groups of defectives of such differing types in one and the same educational institution under one management. It was ultimately seen to be a matter of necessity that schools for Deaf-Mutes and schools for the Blind should be entirely separate from one another, so as to be able to work out independently the special lines of development suited for the several requirements of each.

Hence in the year 1877 a Committee was set up to investigate

the best methods for organizing education for the Blind.

It may be of interest to pause for a little while and see what that Committee had to say in their report at a date now almost sixty years since. The principles laid down for the Care of the Blind bear witness to their originators' clearness of vision and keenness of appreciation regarding the needs of the blind. In the main their recommendations were as follows: Blind children must be placed at an early age under expert guidance, for in the majority of cases their parents lack understanding of their special requirements. In the homes of poor people the children are left in complete isolation, their parents not having the necessary leisure to find employment for them or to supervise them efficiently. In the homes of better-to-do people on the other hand the contrary mistake is made, for there blind children are cosseted in all sorts of ways and are consequently as a rule condemned to a life of practical inactivity. In both cases the result

is that a number of ingrained habits are engendered in the Blind that draw general attention to them and lend support to the preconceived idea in people's minds that the blind constitute a special and peculiar class of their own. The hands of blind people, which should by rights be developed in dexterity so as in measure to take the place of the eyes of whose faculty they are deprived, are left altogether untrained in such skill as would be calculated to make them as serviceable as possible to their possessors. Hence it follows that blind children must begin their schooling as early in life as may be possible, say at seven years of age, and that their schooling should cover a period of as much as eleven years. The first four of those years should be spent in smaller preliminary schools, and then the children should be passed on into higher schools, so-called Blind Institutes. For people who have become blind when grown up special schools must be furnished, where they may be taught some suitable occupation and be instructed in the reading and writing of braille. By being enabled to learn some occupation at the very outset of their lives in blindness and by being brought into contact with others who are afflicted with the same disability, individual blind people may be saved from the danger of being utterly downcast by the misfortune that has befallen them.

As respects the nature and scope of the intellectual instruction to be imparted to the Blind, the standard of knowledge to be obtained by the pupils in the Blind Schools and Institutes should be superior to that reached in the public elementary schools. That must be so from the following consideration:



Gustaf Ek  
Superintendent of the Royal Institute  
for the Blind, Stockholm.

In order that the blind person may have a reasonable chance of holding his or her own in the severe competition to be encountered in life, it is essential that the school shall see to it, that he or she may not only be completely trained in his or her future calling in life, but also may be possessed of a standard of knowledge that places him or her above the sighted of their own walk in life. *"A highly developed intelligence and a quickened acumen constitute the sole advantage that the community can bestow on the Blind in compensation for the loss of the faculty of which they have been deprived."*

The Committee also urge the importance of measures being taken

firstly to prevent blindness coming on, secondly of regular visits being paid to blind persons in order to find out their condition at periodical intervals and to render it possible to supply at once any requirements or needs that may have arisen, and thirdly of a more general care of the blind adults being set on foot and practised.

*Pursuant to the principles above enunciated, preliminary schools, institutes and special schools for adults were founded for the Blind at the expense of the State. Those institutions have continued their labors down to the present day.*

At the same period energetic efforts of a voluntary nature were put forth to ameliorate the condition of the blind. Associations were formed with the aim of assisting the blind, more especially in their quest for work. Those efforts are still being continued. Voluntary organizations and the community are both capable in some measure of smoothing the way for a blind person, but the question as to whether he will make a success of life depends to a very great extent upon himself. He must make it evident that in spite of his disability he is able to accomplish something worth doing; in other words he must not remain passive, resting wholly upon the support of others. If he is able to secure an independent position for himself, the pity and compassion felt by the public for him will very soon be transformed into interest and admiration. As long as blind people are content to remain in idleness, no general interest can be counted on as likely to be felt for them, beyond, of course, what the community may consider to be its duty to do to keep them from want and starvation.

An important element in the

furtherance of the cause of the blind is the mutual aid they strive to render one another by associating themselves together in local organizations. Undoubtedly it is often the case that encouragement or criticism will be of much greater benefit to a blind person, if it is rendered by one who suffers from the same disability as himself rather than by a sighted comrade or fellow-worker. The year 1889 makes an important landmark in the history of the Blind Welfare Movement in Sweden, inasmuch as it was in that year that the Swedish Blind Association was founded. It is not the place in this paper to enlarge upon what that Body has already accomplished and what it is contin-



Alrik Lundberg  
President of the Swedish Blind  
Association.



uing to accomplish in the direction of a betterment of the conditions under which the blind pursue their lives. It must here suffice firstly to say that Director Alrik Lundberg, the Grand Old Man of the Cause of the Blind in Sweden as he has become, took an active part in the work of the Association at the very start and is still at the head of it, directing and guiding its fortunes; secondly to remark that the more such an Association can boast of having leaders of distinction within the ranks of its own members, the more secure can it feel of progress and success; and thirdly to mention the following names of now living distinguished members of the Association in addition to Director Lundberg, viz. Dr. Gustaf Dalen, the renowned scientist and industrialist; Harald Thilander, newspaper editor, who in the pages of his weekly journal, "De Blindas Veckoblad", sends out greetings that reach practically all the blind people within the borders of Sweden, and who with his Esperanto paper, entitled "Esperanto Ligilo", disseminates knowledge amongst the blind all the world over; Director Daniel Af Buren, known throughout Sweden as an exceedingly eminent masseur and exponent of medical gymnastics; Carl Thulin, a keen and sympathetic promoter of intellectual interests among the blind and a supporter of those of their number who pursue scientific study. Finally, of the younger members who have already achieved much and give promise of doing still more in the future, there may be mentioned Ernst Retsler, a bachelor of law, Blind-Welfare Consultant.

When the new school system for the blind was set on foot, school attendance was entirely voluntary, though it was encouraged by the

State charging low fees and granting free places in necessitous cases. *In 1896, however, a law was passed rendering school attendance compulsory on all blind children.* Pursuant to the Act in question it devolves upon each School Authority to furnish to the Blind Education Inspector a list of all blind persons under the age of twenty years who are domiciled within the boundaries of its area.

The Inspector then allots the individual blind persons to the various Blind Schools and Institutes and sees to it that all of them shall duly present themselves to receive instruction. Thanks to the adoption of that method and to the proverbial conscientiousness with which Swedish officials carry out their duties, it is possible to assert that no blind child in Sweden is left without instruction. The schools and institutes are entirely maintained by the State. The pupils receive instruction, lodging, board and clothing free of charge and are conveyed to and from the school or institute without payment.

The Blind Schools are required to impart knowledge to the pupils which will enable them to attain a standard fully on a level with that of the public elementary schools and furthermore to give them instruction in some handicraft or other suitable vocational work. In cases where the possibilities of providing work are restricted or scarce, the School is authorized *to procure vocational training for one or more of its pupils outside the precincts of the School, if that appears suitable and desirable, the cost of such training being defrayed out of public funds.* Thus in country districts for several years past male pupils who are afflicted with impaired



vision have been boarded in farmers' homes to receive instruction more especially in farmyard management. After two years of such training it has proved possible for those agricultural pupils to make their own living without needing recourse to external help. There are not a few persons of impaired vision who have in that way been enabled to set up for themselves. A girl with impaired sight, on the other hand, is afforded an opportunity, if she so wishes, to be received in a family, where she will be trained as a domestic servant, having previously had a comprehensive course of instruction in domestic duties at the Blind School. Girls who are quite blind are also given instruction in domestic duties.

The success or otherwise of an educational establishment rests entirely upon the character and fitness of its teachers. Children afflicted with disabilities of any kind need the best possible teaching to enable them to overcome the special difficulties with which they are confronted. Hence it is important that the teaching staffs of the Blind Schools and Institutes should be recruited from amongst the most able teachers, and that they should be given careful special training for their calling. That is not possible however unless scales of remuneration and conditions of work are entirely satisfactory. *The teachers at the Blind Schools and Institutes in Sweden are accorded salaries by the State on a distinctly higher basis than that of those received by teachers appointed to the public elementary schools.* That circumstance enables those institutions to attract and retain teachers of sterling ability.

To obtain an appointment as a Blind School teacher it is obli-

gatory first of all to pass through an Elementary Teachers' Training College and secure its certificate and then to proceed to the Blind Institute in Stockholm to go through a one year's course of training embracing both theoretical and practical work. The former consists of acquiring the reading and writing of Braille and of being instructed in the history of the education of the Blind, in the psychology of the Blind and in Pedagogics as applicable to the blind. The practical work takes the form of first systematically following the instruction imparted in the several classes and in the various subjects, and then of giving lessons in the classes and subjects under the superintendence and guidance of the headmaster of the school and one of the teachers. In the course of the candidate's probationary year's work it will be manifested whether he or she is fitted to become a teacher of the blind. If that proves not to be the case, there is of course no counting upon his or her receiving an appointment as such. The experience however does not entail upon the candidate any direct sacrifice except that of time, since to all who take up the training-course maintenance grants are awarded that are sufficiently large to cover all contingent expenses.

It is essential that at educational establishments for the blind careful attention should be paid to the physical development of the pupils. The fact that there is a natural tendency for blind children to hold aloof from games and outdoor exercises, owing to the difficulty they have in moving about by themselves—in other words, they are prone to lead sedentary lives, and that should be combated, hence gymnastics every day are imper-

ative. Besides that athletic competitions of various kinds are organized in the spring and autumn, while in winter the pupils participate in skiing, skating and tobogganing. It is also important for those responsible at blind schools to remember that the deportment of their pupils should be brought as closely as possible into harmony

glish, German and Esperanto. Gifted pupils are permitted to pass over to the schools for the sighted. With a view to assisting such pupils to do so an organization has come into being termed, "Stiftelsen de Blindas Bokfond", "Blind People's Book-Fund Foundation", which, by furnishing scholarships and the requisite literature in Braille, seeks



The Royal Institute for the Blind, Stockholm.

with that of the sighted, with an elimination, that is to say, of ingrained peculiarities in manners arising from blindness. Provided a blind person is able to behave in public much in the same way as the sighted, attention will not be paid to his inability, whereas that will be the case, if his deportment markedly differs from the normal.

Optional courses of instruction are provided for the pupils in En-

to facilitate such pupils' striving after increased knowledge. Care is taken however only to encourage such pupils to proceed further with their studies as display undoubted and pre-eminent qualifications, since at the present day it is becoming increasingly difficult for the highly educated to make a living and in the competitive race a blind person is necessarily handicapped. It is only the very specially en-

dowed among the blind who can have any chance of success.

To promote the intellectual training of the blind a publishing organization has been established at the Royal Institute for the Blind for the production of works in Braille. Books can be purchased there at prices considerably below cost. Besides issuing the weekly paper above mentioned, "*De Blindas Veckoblad*", the Swedish Blind Association possesses a library of upwards 12,000 volumes in Braille. Books are lent without any charge and are sent carriage free.

Broadcasting constitutes a priceless possession for the blind. From the proceeds of a national collection and with the aid of philanthropical Blind Societies in various parts of the country wireless sets have been supplied to the great majority of the blind in Sweden. Licences are issued to them by the State free of charge.

The Schools for Blind Adults, one for men and one for women, give instruction in various crafts and in the reading and writing of Braille. No age limit is prescribed for admission to those schools nor is the duration of the courses of instruction fixed. The chief qualification for admission that is insisted upon is that the blind person shall possess a desire to learn. The time spent in the school depends on a variety of circumstances, the principal one being the pupil's own degree of capability. The consequence is that in those schools there will be found men or women of fifty or more associated with those of only twenty. Anyone who has recently become blind derives a great deal of help and encouragement from his or her intercourse with pupils who have been blind for longer periods. The male pupils

are lodged out in the town at suitable homes and soon learn to go to and from their work without requiring anyone to accompany them. As regards women pupils their school is a boarding-establishment in another part of the country. The Royal Institute for the Blind sends its male pupils to the former school to receive the last stage of their training there, with a view to rendering the coming transition from the sheltered life at the Blind Institute to the rough and tumble of ordinary life less trying and irksome. It is of the utmost value and importance for the young men to be boarded out in that way in different families, where they are brought into intercourse with other people than their teachers and fellow-pupils, for they need to learn how to feel their feet and how to get along by themselves.

The character of the work that is required of people and the methods by which that work is accomplished vary from time to time. Hence it is as obligatory for the blind person to learn how to adapt himself to the changing times, as it is for other people. In view of that circumstance the Schools for Blind Adults are in the habit of opening their doors to former pupils so that they may go through Recapitulatory Courses. That plan has proved very useful and acceptable; it also serves a special purpose of great value in affording the blind person a chance of escaping from the isolation into which he or she is only too apt to drift by reason of the lack of vision.

Pupils whose sight is impaired are given the same instruction as those who are quite blind but in addition they have teaching of an ordinary kind in reading and arithmetic and to some extent in writing.





The Royal School for training adult blind men in Handicraft, Kristinehamn.

As all the pupils are taught type-writing there is no object in allowing the practising of ordinary script writing to occupy much time.

As long ago as 1884 a school was established by private initiative for treating cases of blind people who are afflicted with some additional complication. Subsequently the State assumed responsibility for the said school, and it has since evolved two new departments, viz. a so-called Working Home and a Retreat. On completing their school-course such pupils as are capable of accomplishing some sort of labour may be drafted into the Working Home, whereas those who have shown themselves impervious to the teaching imparted, and those also whose physical or mental condition has become enfeebled are relegated to the Retreat. An institution of that description fills a very useful place because at the

ordinary Blind Schools any pupils who display characteristics rendering their continued presence there irksome and obstructive to the harmonious working of the school, can be at once removed to the above-described institution. In their own homes such individuals cannot be dealt with satisfactorily and are a great burden on their parents. In an institution, however, specially designed for the task of studying and treating such abnormal cases it is possible to provide in a more satisfactory way for their bodily welfare. That school too is maintained entirely by the State without any monetary burden being laid upon the parents of the inmates.

The school system above described has been established with the desire to provide the blind in a readily accessible way with opportunities to obtain the best pos-



sible education and training on practical lines. But the question may be asked: "What sort of life will open up for them when their school career is over?" The answer is: "Either they return to their native places or else they resort to some other locality where they hope to be able to find a chance of making a living by their work, the young men taking up as a rule brush or basket making, piano tuning or agricultural work and the girls devoting themselves to needlework of various kinds, weaving, machine-knitting, domestic work etc. On leaving school the pupils are furnished out of the school stocks with the tools they will require and also with some amount of the material they will need to use at the start of their independent work".

At this stage everything would appear to be well ordered for the future; the serious struggle of life however is now about to commence. The difficulty of obtaining employment is often very great and here it is indeed a case of ready help being double help, for if a blind man remains without work for very long he will be likely to lose confidence in his own abilities by degrees, with the result that he becomes indifferent as to his own fortunes and consequently falls as a burden either upon his relatives or upon the parish. Hence it is an imperative requisite that well-organized means should exist to assist the blind at this juncture, though the help rendered should be of such a kind that it puts the blind person in the way of helping himself or herself by employment and not of a kind to foster in them the tendency towards leading a life of idleness. A blind-welfare consultant is of the utmost use just

at this point and is called upon to give advice to a great many with varied pleas.

*The Swedish Blind Association*, which is in receipt of an annual grant from the Exchequer, makes a point of rendering financial assistance to blind persons whenever their difficulties threaten to become insuperable. It has moreover set up workshops in Stockholm where a large number of blind people find employment and it has established a warehouse where such raw materials as blind workers are principally in need of are stocked and sold at as low prices as is possible. Then again, its Blind Provident Fund is ready to lend material assistance in cases of illness and its weekly journal, "*De Blindas Veckoblad*", does excellent service, not only by furthering the Cause of the Blind in general but also by fostering the spirit of solidarity throughout the ranks of the blind.

All that however does not suffice to meet requirements. For one thing the blind are scattered throughout the country and are consequently in many cases in danger of feeling their isolated condition somewhat too keenly. Hence it is exceedingly desirable that influential persons throughout the country should be induced to take a practical interest in the welfare of the blind residing in their immediate neighbourhoods and to show that interest by inquiring into the difficulties that present themselves and by endeavouring to help those blind persons to overcome them and to obtain employment. In the year 1917, at the instigation of the late Crown Princess Margaret, an Association was formed, with representatives in all parts of the country, named:

"Crown Princess Margaret's Working Committee for the Blind". After the death of the Crown Princess in 1920 her consort took her place at the head of the Association and latterly Princess Ingrid has also lent it her support. The principal centre of the movement is Stockholm but branches have been set up in all the provinces, embracing in their member-rolls a large number of prominent people in each locality, all pledged to do what they can to assist and succour the blind in their several neighbourhoods. The Association sets before itself as its primary object to assist the blind to secure employment, i. e. to assist them to assist themselves. With that aim in view efforts are made to provide the blind with own homes, to set up workshops where they can find employment, to furnish those who

desire to set up in business with working capital, to organize training courses, etc. etc. Then again, in order to facilitate the disposal of the articles they make, distributing-centres are set up at which they can hand in their goods and to which tradespeople and factories and agencies of various kinds can resort to replenish their stocks of the particular articles that they require. Each year the local branches send in detailed statements of their varied activities to headquarters in Stockholm, and there those reports are duly embodied in the Annual that the Association publishes respecting the work and progress of the various existing Blind Organizations. That publication enables the public at large to study what is being done in the Cause of the Blind throughout the country and its contents form a useful and prac-



The Royal Lower School, Växjö.

tical guide to the Central Association in determining the lines of policy to be pursued in the future.

\* \* \*

The above pages have sought to indicate what has been already accomplished in Sweden. The pioneer work may be said to be completed; there is still however a great deal remaining to be carried out, before it will be possible to say that the pathway in life for the blind has been made smooth so satisfactorily that they can feel that they are receiving all the sympathy and assistance that they need.

In the domain of education and up-bringing there are numerous problems that we have not yet fathomed completely. To this day we are still to a great extent in ignorance as to how our teaching ought to be organized so as to be of the greatest benefit to the blind. Certain it is that there is yet wanting that exact and scientific psychological knowledge upon which alone it is possible to base curricula of study for the blind, whose world it must be remembered is of quite a different character to that of the sighted. Those faculties for instance which the blind do possess must be developed and trained much more and much more systematically than at present, for they have to do duty and compensate for the vision that is denied them.

Hence it would be a great boon if expert psychologists would devote their attention to the elucidation of the various problems in this department that still await investigation.

While the Blind Schools are, pursuing their beneficent labours

to the best of their ability the blind themselves and those interested in their welfare should endeavour to educate public opinion to a full appreciation of the needs and requirements of the blind. By degrees it will undoubtedly prove possible to bring it home to people that the blind are possessed of inherent powers that might be of direct service to the community. If those powers could once be given full play, respecting both intellectual and manual work and activity, the result would be a distinct gain to all parties concerned, the blind themselves and the public at large. The one thing needful however is that we should enable them to obtain suitable employment, though it is obligatory in addition that with respect to the products of their labour at the various handicrafts to which they devote themselves, the burden and responsibility of disposing of them to purchasers should be lifted off their own shoulders.

If distributing-centres can be provided for the sale of the work of the sighted, it is much more urgent that the blind should have such centres to resort to, seeing that they are so seriously handicapped in the power of moving about and fending for themselves.

\* \* \*

To the writer it appears axiomatic that a blind workman would be out of place in the noisy treadmill of a huge factory. It has been made abundantly manifest to us in the course of our efforts that it is practically impossible to set a blind workman to labour side by side with sighted workmen with any prospect of advantage or success. It would be far better to

endeavour to have some of the raw materials removed from the factory that they might be worked up by blind operators at working-centres so organized as to counteract the special drawbacks under which the blind are constrained to pursue their labour. If it were once for

is put to for his livelihood is necessarily greater. Hence in the long run it is inevitable that the State must contribute in some measure towards his support. In many quarters it has been urged that any support of that character is calculated to have a disadvantageous



The Royal School for blind children with other defects, Lund.

all possible to manifest that, under such conditions, the blind are capable of accomplishing sound and satisfactory work at ordinary rates of payment, we might hope finally to succeed in inducing factory-owners to listen to our entreaties and declare themselves willing to give work to the blind. It would then no longer be a question of an eleemosynary action but simply of ordinary normal competition for the work in question.

Not only is the blind man handicapped by an unavoidable inability to achieve as large an output of labour in a given time as one who possesses sight, but the expense he

influence upon the realizing of the resolve he has formed to make his own way in life. The writer however is of opinion that the experience we have gained respecting such blind workers as are normally equipped goes to prove the contrary. Work for them is still more of a real necessity for their existence than it is for the sighted. The thought of being able, like his fellow-men, to do some useful work buoys a blind man up and makes him think his life worth living. As regards on the other hand those blind people who are poorly endowed both physically and mentally, it is of course clear that they can



never be capable of earning their own livelihood. For them too the receipt of support direct from the State is preferable to being maintained by parish relief for instance at an almshouse for the aged, for

such aid and guidance as can be rendered by specialists in psychology and as can be deduced from the experience of blind persons themselves.

2. *To create a widespread under-*



The School for blind women, Uppsala.

that it must be stated is an environment that as a rule is entirely unsuited to their special needs.

\* \* \*

Hence what we still need to accomplish on behalf of the Blind in Sweden is :

I. *To devise a form of training that shall continually keep in view what the Blind are capable of learning and what they require to be instructed in.*

To attain that end we must look to the initiative of our scholastic establishments for the blind with

*standing and grasp among people in general of what blind persons are capable of accomplishing in various departments.*

That must be brought about in the first place through the instrumentality of local organizations spread over the whole country whose aim and object it shall be to educate the public, and in the second in a preeminent degree, through the blind proving themselves by their personal qualities to be men and women of sterling value as citizens.

3. *To establish better organized conditions of work and a State*

*compensatory endowment scheme for blindness.*

The methods whereby the two latter desiderata may be realized are at the present time being inquired into by a body appointed by the Swedish Government.

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\* \*

Finally a few statistical data. The population of Sweden is about

six millions. The total number of blind people, inclusive of those who have lost their sight by reason of increasing years is 5,200. Of that total 300 are under twenty years of age. 2,100 are between twenty and sixty, and 2,800 are upwards of sixty. As blind there are counted not only those who are totally blind but also those whose sight is so enfeebled that they cannot satisfactorily do ordinary kinds of work.

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# THE GRAFTING OF THE CORNEA

By V. FILATOFF

Professor at the Medical Institute of Odessa, U. R. S. S.

When the cornea is subjected to so-called complete cataract, i. e. the entire cornea becomes opaque and cannot be healed, there is only one way of restoring the sight— by replacing the cataract with a transparent cornea through an operation consisting of grafting.

The idea of grafting was conceived more than one hundred years ago and it is hard to say to whom belongs the priority in this question— to Riesinger, Himley, Ricke or Messner. Practical application of cornea grafting took a long time ; during the first fifty years it was done exclusively in the laboratories and only after 1870 Hippel, the German oculist, began to make experiments on people. He improved the technical part of it considerably and introduced his famous mechanical trepan. However, Hippel's success was not yet established owing to the fact that it was the cornea of animals which he was using for grafting purposes, and this was wrong: further examination and research proved that grafting of tissues from one species of animals to another is always condemned to failure.

Potzer and Hippel made attempts then to use the cornea of the human

eye but they did not succeed in obtaining a transparent development of the cornea. Towards the beginning of the twentieth century the interest in cornea grafting was almost completely lost, and only in 1905 the problem was taken up again with renewed interest.

Following Hippel's method, Tzirm applied a human cornea to a blind eye with a complete cataract and succeeded in getting, to the great surprise of all the oculists, a firm transparent development of the transferred cornea, thus restoring the patient's sight.

From now on the interest in cornea grafting increased considerably. Many other single cases of successful operations performed by different oculists were demonstrated and it was Professor Elshnig, German ophthalmologist (in Prague) who first performed this cornea grafting on a large scale, which enabled him to find out the details necessary for more or less genuine success. He performed one hundred and seventy-four eye operations: the second place by virtue of number of operations belongs to the Ocular Clinic at the Medical Institute of Odessa, with eighty-five operations.

Nowadays grafting has ceased to

be something unrealizable and is gradually spreading among oculists.

There are several methods of cornea grafting. I will describe only the method which was so successfully applied by Professor Elshnig and his followers, i.e. the method of partial open grafting.

1. The following materials can be used for grafting:

a. The cornea of an eye removed from a person on account of a serious disease or injury.

b. The cornea of an eye removed from the body of a person just deceased.

c. The cornea removed from a patient's other blind eye (this in the case of the cornea being transparent).

It is understood that if the cornea is taken from another person, the latter must be free from any contagious disease, particularly from syphilis.

By means of a trepan (cylindrical saw revolving on its axis), a round piece of 4 mm. in diameter is cut out of the cornea of the eye serving for grafting (so-called "guest" cornea).

2. In the cataract of the patient (so-called "master") a piece is cut out of its entire thickness with the aid of the same trepan (or even better with a trepan having a diameter 0,05 mm. larger). The piece of "guest" cornea is inserted in the opening in the "master" eye and there continues its work of development.

If there are no complications, the transferred piece as a rule gets well united. But this development does not yet guaranty success. Very often the transparency of the transferred piece diminishes and the improvement of the sight is insignificant. This process of dimness

in the graft causes great suffering to the patient, who at first, immediately following the operation recovers sight, as well as disappointment to the doctor who performed the operation, as in it he sees the failure of his hopes. Taking into consideration the possibility of this dimness of vision oculists decided not to consider the cases of transparent development of the cornea successful where the patient has been under observation for a period less than nine months. One should not forget that besides unsuccessful cases there are quite a number of cases in which operations have an unfortunate issue, such as the destruction of the operated eye, this depends upon complications during the operation (technically a very delicate one), as well as after the operation.

Considering the chances for a successful operation and its dangers, the patient should seriously think over it before making any decision.

How great are the chances for successful grafting of the cornea?

If we take promiscuously all the cataracts according to the statistics of Professor Elshnig and of the Ocular Clinic of Odessa, the average of successful grafting operations amounts to 10 %. This average permits us to form a general idea of the importance of cornea grafting. At the present day, with all accumulated data we cannot restrict analysis and must throw light on the number of successful cases and their dependence on different kinds of cataract and different eyes subjected to operation.

The following main groups of eyes with cataract are to be distinguished;

1. Eyes, which owing to disease of the retina and of the optic nerve, have lost the perception of light.

2. Eyes, which have not lost the perception of light but have compli-



cations such as glaucoma, or some affection in the outer part of the eye. In this group, chances of a successful operation are rare and the dangers are considerable.

3. Eyes which have a sound optic nerve without any of the above mentioned complications but which have cataract due to sores on the cornea. This kind of cataract is composed of a ribbed tissue. In such cases the transferred cornea remains transparent and one out of ten patients recover their sight, the other nine acquire only a better perception of light, which is of value too. The operations can be repeated.

4. Eyes with a sound optic nerve and a cataract which has left the tissue of the cornea more or less preserved. These cataracts result from light burns and especially from parenchymatous keratitis (aggravated inflammation of the cornea—usually a manifestation of inherited syphilis). The cataracts of this category present a dim cornea, almost without any tissue. Cornea grafting on such cataracts are 70 % successful. This figure is proved by data furnished by Professor Elshnig and myself.

This data offers information whereby important deductions may be made for the blind of the Union.

Out of 235,000 blind men that belong to the Union, approximately one half have lost their sight on account of cataract. Among 117,000 men suffering from blindness on account of cataract several thousands can be found who could have undergone the operation of grafting; the major part of those can rely on a 10 % success which is of some importance; the other part, though minor but still consisting of several thousand men belonging to the above-mentioned 4th. category, has

a much greater chance for the recovery of their sight, i.e. 70 %; to this latter group can be added also people not registered as blind (having sight slightly over 1/200) but who are nevertheless invalids and a burden to society and to themselves.

People with cataracts due to parenchymatous keratitis have the choice of an operation offering 70 % success. If we reduce the probability of permanent recovery of sight to 50 % (considering the possibility of a relapse to the original disease that caused the cataract) even then the institutions for the protection of health have to face an important problem of sanitation in the majority of the citizens.

It is true that the question of cornea grafting is too new and too vast for practical realisation, considering the insufficiency of oculists able to perform the grafting, but I consider that it should at least be well organized in part, in the first place for the blind with cataracts due to parenchymatous keratitis.

The following are my viewpoints with regard to this question:

1. It is necessary to enable the institutions for eye treatment which have specialists on cornea-grafting, to accept a large number of patients with cataracts due to parenchymatous keratitis, and to create for them community life where they could stay during the period necessary for obtaining the grafting material, as well as after the operation (several months) and up to the moment when results can be definitely established. The question of a lodging for the patients must be of interest to all the blind.

2. The patients with cataracts due to parenchymatous keratitis must be found among the blind of the Union with the aid of dispensaries. For that reason dispensaries must be

well acquainted with the problem of grafting and should direct the patients, after they have been examined by an oculist and have had special treatment (2—4 courses) to corresponding ocular institutions where grafting is performed. The search for the blind can also be done by the All-Russian Society of the Blind among their members. This search for the blind through the aid of dispensaries will illustrate well the importance of this method of medicine and will serve as a good example for the collective work of the Union's dispensaries.

I already began this experiment with the approval of the Glavtche Institute in Odessa.

3. When there is a large number of candidates for grafting operations care has to be taken to have a sufficient quantity of material for grafting.

*a.* One of the sources of transparent cornea for grafting are the eyes removed from patients (not infected with syphilis) on account of trauma or serious diseases. Such eyes can easily be found in the ocular institutions of the Union, but even in using one cornea for two patients only an insignificant part of the demand can be satisfied.

*b.* Another source are the eyes of deceased people; by observing certain measures of precaution when removing the eyes and preserving them (aseptic, right temperature), such eyes can be appropriate for grafting purposes during a period of several days. Not once did the oculists use the eyes of deceased people. I began to apply this method as well, of developing the use of the eyes of the dead. With the approval of Dr. Sakharoff I had the opportunity of getting from the Maternity Home the eyes of dead abortions. However this source is defic-

ient. Experimenting with eyes from deceased people under present conditions is not an easy task.

It is useless to remove the eyes from the dead after they have been transported to the pathological-anatomical room. Asepticism is not observed nor are the conditions of temperature necessary for preservation (the right temperature should be between 4° and 6° Celsius) and time is wasted. The eyes should be removed before the dead body has been transferred to the anatomical room, as only under such conditions is it possible to observe the rules of asepticism and of temperature.

This is practically impossible—with few exceptions—as according to the existing laws it is forbidden to remove the eyes from a deceased person without the consent of his relatives, and this can hardly ever be obtained.

As a matter of fact, the eyes of a dead person cannot be seen as they are hidden under the eyelids, and they are not needed by the family of the deceased, moreover the removal of the eyes does not deform the figure (besides they can be substituted by artificial ones). On the other hand they are of great value to the blind.

For the benefit of society and state it is advisable to put an end to these prejudices and in this way enable the blind to use something that no one needs for their liberation. I consider it desirable that the institutions for the protection of health give special orders permitting the removal of eyes without the consent of their relatives, from people who die in hospitals and clinics.

On reading the above exposure a doubt may arise as to whether the prospects of practical importance of the grafting in cases of cataract due to parenchymatous keratitis are not

exaggerated or at least premature, in view of the fact that the number of this kind of operation is not big (about 40 %). I consider that with considerable success (70 %) there should not be any doubt as to the utility of this operation.

In any case it is undeniable that this question deserves much attention and needs further treating. The scientific data are so precious that it is time to support the further efforts of the oculists who are study-

ing this question under more or less difficult conditions, through organized channels, inasmuch as the problem of the grafting of the cornea will be facilitated through such organization, for all oculists who perform this operation. I wish to give appreciation here of the assistance which the Narkomzdrav (Department of Health) of Ukrainia rendered to the ocular Clinic of the Odessa Medical Institute in the treatment of cornea grafting.

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# THE RADIO IN THE EDUCATION OF THE BLIND

By P. C. PORTS, Ph. D.

Superintendent, Idaho State School for the Deaf and the Blind.

The radio is the greatest blessing to the blind since the development of tactile print. It is even more valuable to the blind than the motion picture is to the deaf. The reasons for this are: that it is in readiness at all times, it is less expensive, a greater variety of programs can be enjoyed, and material which is more worth while is available.

To what extend are these advantages being utilized? Undoubtedly the majority of blind persons in the United States have access to a radio. The prices of both battery and electric sets have been reduced until the purchase of a good set will not exhaust even a very modest pocket-book. Moreover, generous benefactors have arranged so that proper persons who would otherwise be deprived of this source of pleasure and profit may procure sets free of charge.

But, apparently, although the radio is at hand, yet it is not being used as it should be. How often, in the home, it is tuned in on a local station, and, while the person goes about his or her work, allowed to broadcast any sort of program until something particularly objectionable comes along, then turned to another station and the same pro-

cedure repeated. How much attention is paid to, and how much advantage is derived from the programs thus indistinctly and partially heard? Such use of the radio gives one little, except a certain feeling of companionship when one is alone.

On the other hand, if the radio is located so that one can do most of his routine work near it, if the worth while programs for the day are selected in the morning and the radio is tuned in on them at the proper times, an enormous amount of enjoyment and advantage may be derived. It is well to have a notebook handy and to jot down anything of particular value. To get the most out of such use of the radio one needs to develop a certain variety of concentration, somewhat different from that required in reading and study. One is so accustomed to most household tasks that they can be performed while any kind of program is listened to. Other occupations, such as writing letters, looking over the daily papers, etc., require more attention and prevent one from properly enjoying anything necessitating closer attention than music. Even during work demanding the deepest concentration and profoundest meditation, some may find soft



music not only distracting but helpful. However, it is probable that the programs listened to will be more profitably utilized if the radio is allowed to remain silent for a part of the time.

As to the broadcasts worthy of attention in the home, that is a matter of personal preference. So far we have not had the trouble in censoring radio broadcasting that we had in connection with the movies. Very little of the material that is broadcasted can be accused of corrupting public morals. But we should encourage those who give us worth while programs, by letting them know that these are appreciated; and we can teach people how to derive more enjoyment from certain types of programs and to listen to these instead of to less valuable or even valueless ones.

Now the question arises, what broadcasts are of most worth? That depends upon the individual and his mood. In some cases, an educational feature is the most desirable; in others, an inspirational program; and again, a merely entertaining one. Each of these may take any one of several forms. The educational feature may be an address upon some helpful topic, current events; or a good musical program. The inspirational number may be an address or sermon, a selection from literature, or a chatty talk. The entertaining program may be almost anything, according to the individual's tastes and mood.

It is of doubtful value to mention specific broadcasts, because they differ so much in different parts of the country and more so in different countries, but a few chain features may be mentioned as examples. Perhaps the most famous ones in this country are, "The American School of the Air" programs and

the Damrosch "Music Appreciation" series. Others which might be mentioned are "The March of Time", "The Political Situation in Washington", and the "Farm and Home Hour". Inspirational and entertaining numbers are "Tony's Scrap Book", "The First Nighter", Amos 'n Andy, and a great variety of excellent concerts.

But the great joy which the blind person derives from the radio is due, not so much to these special features, but to the fact that it enables him to live a fuller, richer life—to enjoy everything of importance that is going on in the world. He can have a teacher of physical training come right to his home and give him setting-up exercises every morning. An authority on dietetics will tell him what to eat to preserve or improve his health, and how various foods should or may be prepared. He can hear the current news several times a day, told by masters of the art of telling it. He can listen to chamber music while he eats his luncheon or dinner. He has a reserved seat at the great football and baseball games, the Olympics, the Kentucky Derby, and other important sporting events. He can hear a lecture on philosophy or education in the evening, or, if too tired to enjoy that, can listen to a play or detective story, or some music. If the weather is bad on Sunday, he may attend good church service without leaving the house. If he cannot afford to travel, he may obtain many of its advantages through travel talks. If his early educational opportunities were not of the best, he can compensate for that fact by taking courses in almost any subject.

Moreover, so many stations are included in the chain broadcasts, that, if one lives within reasonable

distance of a large city, he may enjoy these things by means of a comparatively small radio set. And the radio is relatively a new invention. Additional valuable features are being added to the broadcasts from time to time. It will probably be only a matter of time until college courses leading to a degree will be offered over the radio. In some respects they would be better than correspondence courses. The voice of the instructor would give more of the personal element than a typewritten syllabus and letters. The possibilities of the radio, in fact, seem almost limitless.

On the other hand, of course, it has its drawbacks and dangers. One of these is that the individual will listen to trashy programs, such as sensational dramas and jazz music, almost to the exclusion of better things. Another is that he will simply half listen to anything that comes along, with no effort toward selecting the best or making the fullest possible use of it. But, perhaps the greatest danger is that he will be influenced too much

by the propaganda carried on over the radio. This may result only in his spending too much money for Listerine, or Pepsodent tooth paste, but it is very apt to go farther than that and to induce him to buy too largely on the installment plan, to borrow money from loan agencies, or to vote for the wrong man. It may even shape an individual's whole philosophy of life, and, too often, not in the best fashion. Because of the passiveness engendered by this stay-at-home, sit-by-the-fire mode of life, a philosophy of laissez-faire inactivity is encouraged, instead of the red-blooded aggressiveness that is needed at the present time. Let us then choose the best and learn to use it in the right way. And let those of us who are parents and teachers of youth accept the responsibility now thrust upon us to develop in the children who are in our care an appreciation of the best things in life and the habit of taking advantage of them to the fullest extent. Only thus can we fulfil our God-given mission.

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# PROGRESS IN MUSICAL EDUCATION

## A Survey of the New Piano Method of Professor RAYMOND THIBERGE

By BRAVIG IMBS

Child prodigies are nothing new. Most of us have heard these little virtuosos, performing at the piano with startling brilliance, and have suffered with them, thinking of the long hours devoted to scales which might better have been spent in healthy play. But three prodigies in a row, who have not had to give up their school work or play for their music, and who take obvious delight in their art, represent something different. Little Suzanne Etourmy, Huguette Foucroy and Jacqueline Gysin who recently gave a concert at the Salle Gaveau, playing with orchestra, offered conclusive proof that their teacher, Professor Raymond Thiberge, Director of the Institut de Pedagogie Musicale, has discovered a new principle in musical education. Indeed, Professor Thiberge, blind from childhood, has evolved a method of piano which bids fair to supplant the laborious classical methods completely and to have a far-reaching effect on education in general.

Professor Thiberge's method essentially consists in *the conscious creation and co-ordination of the automatisms necessary to the correct playing of the piano.*

In his remarkable book, "L'Enseignement Physiologique de la

Technique Pianistique", Professor Thiberge makes a careful and profound analysis of what automatisms are needed and comes to the startling conclusion that every normal human being has the capacity of playing the piano competently, even of playing it as well as contemporary virtuosos. What is lacking, he claims, are not the faculties, but the proper utilization of these faculties. Although admitting that difference in sensibility will make for a difference in the quality of performers, he discredits the popular notion of a "gift" for music. Those who have a "gift" are merely persons who by some accident of circumstance have stumbled on the automatisms of proper playing.

No one was more skeptical of Professor Thiberge's theories than he himself. Schooled in the classical manner, holding an important position in the conservative Ecole Normale de Musique, he subjected every one of his ideas to a rigorous examination and extensive experiment. But as these experiments were successful he began to doubt the efficacy of the old methods. He felt that there was something wrong with a system which did not invariably give results when good will and effort were applied. Why was

it that students who were conscientious and spent hours on arid exercises seemed to go backwards while others, happy-go-lucky, with half their colleagues' effort, made progress by leaps and bounds? A method which permitted such injustice seemed fundamentally unsound to Professor Thiberge and the measure he applied to his own method was that it should give results proportionate to the effort expended. Moreover, he so skillfully graded his exercises that the pupil is enabled to see the progress he makes from day to day, and not as with the old system realize that at the end of six months he has made some indefinite advance.

It was not in a day that Professor Thiberge developed his method, but rather over a period of twenty years of painstaking study, research and experimentation. In fact, it was only a few years ago that he realized he had definitely grasped the problem in all its aspects, but from that time on he began to obtain remarkable results with his pupils.

The three little pianists whom he recently presented in public were none of them gifted when they started their studies with him. They came from a middle class environment and had had no special cultural advantages. Yet, in the brief space of three years they have acquired an astounding facility at the piano, playing difficult works of Bach and Mozart, and have enough knowledge of harmony to improvise accompaniments.

How was this miracle (for it is nothing less than a miracle) accomplished?

By automatisms.

First of all, Professor Thiberge makes a sharp distinction between mental and manual technique. Mental technique has scarcely been

touched upon by the old methods and yet most of the gestures used in piano playing are directed from brain centers. The mental automatisms of sight-reading, of rhythm, of hearing, of determining tonality, are of the highest importance, yet in the former methods their acquisition was left to chance. If you were lucky you acquired them, if not, you had no talent for music.

Consequently, in the beginning, the pupil is taught to read notes in such a way that they are as familiar to him as the ABC's. Professor Thiberge has constructed a special apparatus to develop the automatisms or reflexes necessary for reading. It is a simple rectangle of cardboard with a square aperture in the center in which the various notes appear one at a time. The speed of their appearance is determined by the operator. The advantage of this apparatus over printed exercises is that exercises are almost always constructed according to a formula, that is, the notes to be learned are repeated in a certain pattern, with the result that the pupil learns the pattern, not the notes. With this apparatus, the notes are not presented in a pattern and the direct reflex or automatism is established in a short time. The pupil answers without thinking, that is, quicker than he can think, the name of the note that is flashed on his vision. Furthermore, the appearance of the notes in the aperture occurs in accordance with the beat of the metronome. Professor Thiberge lays great stress on the necessity of rhythm in the creation of automatisms. Speed in reading is thus gradually and regularly developed, the metronome being accelerated as the pupil's responses become more rapid.





Professor Raymond Thiberge, Director of the Institut de Pedagogie Musicale de Paris.

When the pupil can name eight different notes to one beat of the metronome at sixty, the automatism for each of these eight notes can be said to be established.

Once this basis is acquired, the pupil learns to distinguish simple chords in the same way, as well as the simultaneous reading of the bass and treble clefs.

The automatisms for rhythms are created with equal deliberation. The pupil is taught not only to have a mental grasp of the rhythms presented but to have the physical sensation of the beat inside himself. An automatism for every fundamental rhythm is constructed by a series of special exercises.

But perhaps the most spectacular achievement of Professor Thiberge

is in the domain of ear development. His handicap of blindness enabled him to realize that in the gradations of sound there was a field of observation which seeing persons know nothing about. In other words, normal persons possess this faculty of keen hearing which characterises the blind, but they do not utilize this faculty fully.

Many are the pupils of Professor Thiberge who claimed that they had no "ear" for music, that is, they could not name sounds which they heard, and who, at the end of a few months' training were able to name any note of the scale which was played. Professor Thiberge's method consists in acquainting the pupil with each note separately until the pupil knows its sound as he

knows a person. He does not learn to know *mi* because it is a third above *do* (the complicated inefficient old method) but because it is *mi*. He knows it because of its unique sound, not by its relation to other sounds. In other words, Professor Thiberge teaches his pupils to ascertain the delicate gradations of

most important principles: "Not concentration: isolation." When persons "concentrate", claims Professor Thiberge, they create mental and muscular tensions which have just the opposite effect desired: they paralyse their mental processes rather than accelerate them. What is necessary is to isolate the fact, or



Suzanne Etourmy, Huguette Fourcroy and Jacqueline Gysin, Professor Thiberge's three virtuoso pupils, whose recent performance at the Salle Gaveau astounded the musical world of Paris.

sound which are generally not noticed by seeing persons. Thus, a direct reflex or automatism is created for every note on the keyboard. This is simple enough but the demonstration of this part of the method by Professor Thiberge's three little pupils never fails to astound an audience. Not only are the children able to name any note struck, but entire chords and runs and this at the rapidity of the automatism, instantaneously.

Their achievement is closely linked with one of Professor Thiberge's

in the case of ear training, to hear the note only, not to think of other things at the same time, and especially not to attempt to determine its name by the interval method. To any one who has seen and heard Professor Thiberge's pupils perform, it is clear that they detach themselves completely from their surroundings and do nothing but listen and respond reflexively to what they hear.

At the same time as ear automatisms are being developed, automatisms for distinguishing tonalities

are created. These automatisms enable the student to know in what key he is playing, what modulations are being made. He does not have to hinder his performance by thinking that in G major there is an F sharp, but reflexively plays the F sharp when his ears tell him he is playing in G Major. This invaluable set of automatisms dispenses immediately with practising scales, and so lops off hours of useless practising, which can be devoted to purely musical studies.

Professor Thiberge's contribution to manual technique is no less revolutionary. Starting from the premise that if more attention were paid to the gestures of good pianists much time could be saved in learning how to play, Professor Thiberge discovered by a process of observation and elimination the muscular automatisms necessary for correct keyboard position. In a recent interview he recounted the development of this phase of his work: "You may think it strange", said Professor Thiberge at that time, "that I should concern myself at first with gestures I could not see. But it was precisely my handicap which enabled me to see where others had been confused and misled.

"In teaching my pupils I am obliged to touch them in order to picture to myself their position at the keyboard. Naturally, my sense of touch has been developed to a state of extreme sensitivity, and it was not long before I discovered that there was a primary condition always present in good players, always absent in poor ones, —namely, a certain position of the shoulder blade in relation to the collar bone. When the two seemed to meet closely and completely the playing was good, when they but half-joined the playing was defective.

"Aided by Dr. A. Barnatt, a roentgenologist of New York," continued Professor Thiberge, "a number of X-ray photographs were taken (see Figs. 1 and 2) and my discovery was graphically proved. If you examine these illustrations carefully you will see how the first shows the bones compactly and clearly joined, the second only half-joined. But why, you may ask, should this position of the shoulder blade have an effect on the hands at the keyboard? What has the bony structure to do with playing which is chiefly muscular?"

"I searched for the answer to this question for many years before I found it out conclusively," stated Professor Thiberge, "and the answer upset practically all the classical notions of teaching I had ever believed in. I found out that far too much attention, for example, has been paid to muscles and to muscular effort and practically none at all to bony structure. Muscles, like fire, are good servants but bad masters. The less they are used the better.

"Before going on to a detailed explanation of what my new conception of keyboard position actually is, let me give you a list of what effects and results are produced almost immediately by its correct adoption.

1. The pupil "holds" the keyboard, has an easy mastery of all bodily movements while playing.
2. Stiffness and limpness of the hand disappear, giving way to supple firm fingers and consequently precise touch and beautiful tone.
3. Nervousness is diminished to a minimum.
4. Equality of tone obtained without any effort; no more labo-





Fig. 1 : Good position; note how the collar bone and shoulder blade join ; also note how closely the bone of the upper arm fits into the glenoid cavity of the shoulder blade.

rious harmful exercises to "strengthen" the fingers or "correct" the little finger.

5. Velocity acquired easily without hours and hours of muscle-binding exercises.

"These are precisely the results every teacher wishes his pupil to acquire," said Professor Thiberge, "but almost all of them are opposed to my way of attaining them, though my method has been proven quicker and surer.

"Every individual has his individual problem in relation to key-

board position, but in general, my principles are these: the hand, forearm, upper arm are not active agents but passive agents, and should only serve to transmit the force to play which passes by way of the bony structure. It is trying to make the muscles do this work which results in stiffening; muscular performance should be reduced to a minimum.

"The force to play takes its origin in the performer's displacement of weight, the pivot point of which is the base of the backbone. From



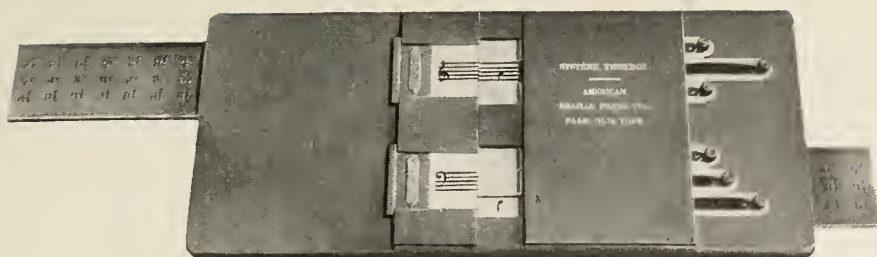


Fig. 2 : Bad position; note the incorrect upward slant of the collar bone, causing separation from the shoulder blade; also note how the glenoid cavity is turned outwards, thus deflecting the force which would otherwise be transmitted to the bone of the upper arm.

thence the force is transmitted upwards to the shoulder blades. Here is located the crucial point of transmission. If the connection is compactly, completely made, the force passes in all its strength down the arm to the fingertips. If the connection is not perfectly made, much of the force is wasted and muscles of the arm are forced to make up what is lost. Any excess muscular performance results in stiffening, and loss of control.

"When one has acquired the posi-

tion correctly," continued Professor Thiberge, "the sensation is that the arms are weightless and move effortlessly as though they were suspended, while at the fingertips there is an amazing sensation of weight and power. Articulation of the fingers is no longer a problem, for the finger is relieved of practically all muscular effort; the bogey of the little finger is inexistant. Control of the volume of force lies in the crux of the elbow which slightly opens and closes as is needed.



Original Thiberge Music Frame.

"Nervousness' which is the bane of so many students takes its chief source in the stiffening of the muscles. If the arm is passive it is relaxed, and in fact, to acquire the position correctly requires first of all relaxation of the entire body. When one knows where the force to play comes from, and how to control it, a large element of uncertainty and fear is removed, and this, coupled with relaxation, results in an easy manner of playing which is agreeable both to the performer and the listener.

"The one principle which I think all important," said Professor Thiberge in conclusion, "is relaxation. There must be no tensions anywhere, for we have learned that even slight tensions in the calf of the leg, for example, have indirectly a harmful effect on playing."

Naturally, such statements have aroused a storm of comment and criticism in the Paris musical world, and educators in other branches have

become interested in his principle of automatism. As a matter of fact, the application of his discoveries to the field of general education is now being attempted at the Ecole Normale de Sèvres, under the superintendence of Mlle. Amieux, the director of this important school. If arithmetic, reading, writing, etc., can be reduced to a series of automatisms (and in theory there would seem to be no obstacle to this achievement) the present acute problem of overwork in the school would be quickly solved. Indeed, in the face of an ever accumulating store of knowledge to be acquired, some short cut must be found. It may very well be that the progress which Professor Thiberge has effected in musical education may soon be duplicated by his followers in general education, and it is to be sincerely hoped that they will obtain the same successful results which have rewarded his years of patient research and effort.

# THE BLIND IN PALESTINE

By SUBHI DAJANI\*, Jerusalem

The subject of the blind in Palestine cannot be treated fully because the sources of information that are at hand are entirely deficient and inadequate. Statistics regarding the blind have obviously been considered of little importance by the Department of Health, other administrative departments and municipalities. Consequently in the face of existing difficulties the following can only be an approximate account.

Confronted by economic obstacles, a low standard of education and social standing, the existence of those without sight in this country is a miserable one. No provision is made to assist them in their competition with the sighted worker, there are no libraries with reading matter and what is most discouraging, there exists no organization to fight for their interests.

The Government has so far provided no legislation for the relief of the blind and such attempts as have been made to call the attention of the Government authorities to the present unsatisfactory condition of the sightless of Palestine has met

with scant sympathy. Most of those who enjoy decent living are sons or relatives of rich individuals.

There are three institutions which care for the education of the blind, though not exclusively. The best is the Jewish Institute for the Blind which is entirely for Jews. The Syrian Orphanage devotes part of its buildings to the housing and education of the non-seeing and finally there is a Moslem Orphanage. The number of blind in these establishments according to the report submitted by the High Commissioner of Palestine to the Permanent Mandate Commission, is 190.

Blindness in Palestine is caused chiefly by Trachoma which malady is being efficiently treated at St. John's Hospital in Jerusalem. Ignorance of hygiene on the part of the public is largely responsible for the spreading of this unfortunate disease. The total number of blind in Palestine is given as 5,000 although these figures are obviously incorrect, no account having been taken of the sightless village populations.

Only 5 % of these sightless people are literate so their occupations are mainly manual. Some of the educated blind have become successful

---

\*Blind.



Subhi Dajani.

lawyers. One is proprietor and Editor-in chief of one of the best and most widespread newspapers in Palestine "El-Jami'at Ei-Islamiyah" Pan-Islamism. The writer is the first blind person to receive a degree of Bachelor of Arts from the American University of Beirut.

In general the blind in Palestine show great intellect but the lack of encouragement checks all their hope and the lack of material assistance deprives them of the possibility of becoming active members in their community. Those who earn their living by manual labor are not more fortunate than the rest as no state aid is at hand for the establishment of workshops

nor for the consumption of their products. Most of the Moslem blind earn their living by reading the Koran after the dead. The streets abound with blind beggars and no attempts are made to combat and eliminate this social anomaly.

A group of educated blind have recently tried to establish an organization to promote the welfare of their sightless fellow-beings. This organization has approached the Government requesting that the same privileges be granted them as those of the European blind. It



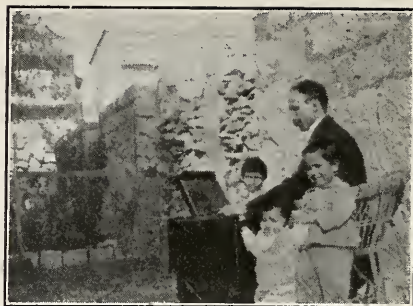
Broom makers.

appeals to blind associations in Europe for help and material assistance so that it will be enabled to create a Palestinian group strong enough to convince the Government of the necessity for considering the question of state provision for the education of the blind in order to banish illiteracy. The literate non-seeing population depends on foreign publications for reading matter,



this means that only those who know foreign languages can make profitable use of their leisure time. The only Arabic publication in Braille is the Bible. Embossing presses and stereotype machines are urgently needed in this country and the O.W.B.P., Organization for the Welfare of the Blind in Palestine, have been making great efforts to achieve this aim. This new Organization is taking the initiative but its accomplishments will naturally be very limited if it is dependent alone upon subscription fees of its members, who are in the main poor.

It is to be hoped however that in the future the Government will be induced to consider the question of education of the blind and to take practical steps to improve their economic condition. The O.W.B.P. is planning to establish a



Blind musician.

club with a view to putting an end to the social isolation of the Palestinian blind. The problem of promoting the welfare of the blind and that of their education, not yet officially raised, are two enormous problems facing us and demanding instant solution.

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# AMERICAN BRAILLE PRESS, Inc.

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"ARTICLE FIRST : The objects for which the corporation is formed are as follows :

"To raise and receive money, funds, securities and other property by voluntary contributions, subscriptions, legacies and gifts, and disburse the same for the relief of soldiers and sailors of the United States and of the nations allied or associated with it in the conduct of the late World War who have been blinded in that war or as a result thereof, and also for the relief of and aid to those in civil life blind from any cause soever in any part of the world, through such agencies as the Board of Directors or the Executive Committee of the Board of Directors may authorize.

"To own and operate and maintain, as a mode of relief and aid to the blind, an establishment or establishments in any part of the world for the providing of reading matter, music and the like in Braille, or other method, for the use of the blind of any nation or country of the world, irrespective of whether such blind are civilians or soldiers or sailors of the nations engaged in the late World War or of other nations, including, but not by way of limitation, establishments for the printing of books, magazines and other papers in Braille or other method, and for the scientific study and development of Braille and for assisting the blind in the use thereof.

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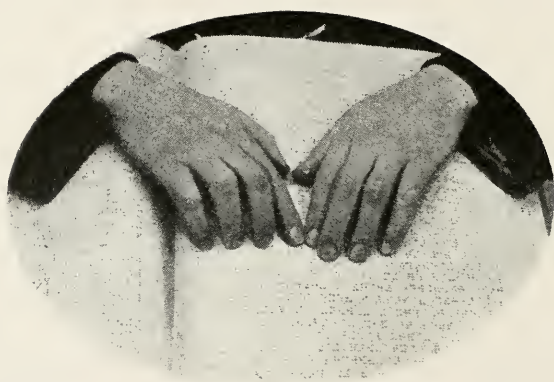
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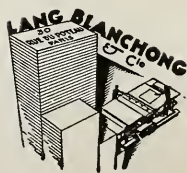
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## NEW HEADQUARTERS OF THE AMERICAN BRAILLE PRESS

The American Braille Press, originally founded with the object of extending aid to the war-blinded, generously widened the scope of its work in 1923 to include the civilian blind throughout the world. The steady progress made by the organization has led its directors to transfer the scene of activities from 74 Rue Lauriston, to 4, rue de Montevideo, Paris, where—away from the bustle of the city and almost within the shadow of the Bois de Boulogne—a spacious, dignified structure offers greater facilities for the manifold requirements of its many sided activities.

The present quarters are commodious and bright, offering ideal conditions under which to carry on the vast work, the inestimable value of which is being daily demonstrated to the blind of the entire world.

The functions of the American Braille Press are not limited to printing braille books, magazines and music. In its large workshops research work goes on, braille writers, stereotyping machines are produced and large numbers of various tools and appliances for the benefit of the blind are manufactured—such as pocket slates, styluses, as



New European Headquarters at Paris of the American Braille Press  
for War and Civilian Blind, Incorporated.

well as numerous games for leisure hours: Chess, Crossword Puzzles, Nine Men's Morris, The Game of Numbers, Backgammon etc.

Great attention was given, in planning the present establishment, to facilitate the work of the sightless or half-sighted employees. The folding, stitching and binding departments are installed in adjacent rooms and every department has been installed with a view to greater efficiency and convenience.

These new headquarters leave on all observers a sense of space, brightness, ceaseless activity and harmonious co-operation. Improved processes of printing assure the blind of an ever-increasing quantity of literature through which to acquire education and emancipation. The sole aim of the American Braille Press is to aid the sightless in their victory over blindness.

\* \* \*

## THE INTERNATIONAL KEY

The English version of the international "Braille Music Notation" edited and published by the American Braille Press may now be had: ink-print copy, \$1.00; Braille copy, \$0.75.

In the subscript to the title of the book is the following explanation: "Conforming with the decisions of the international congress convoked by the American Braille Press, April, 1929".

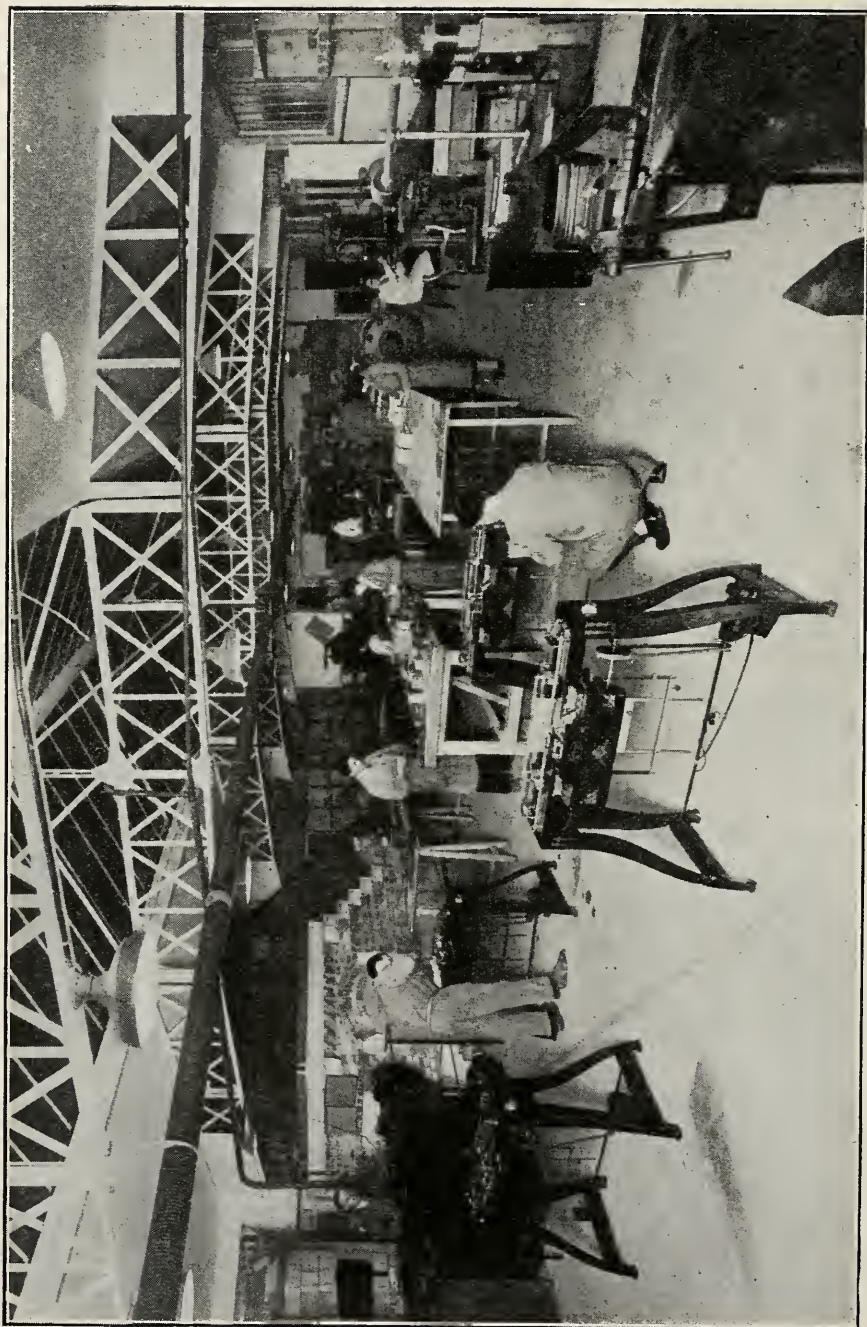
The history of this text is far too involved to be given here in detail. The first draft was made in French by Messrs. Clavers and Dupas of Paris. A preliminary English trans-

lation was prepared for the British and American delegates to the Conference. Afterwards this draft was extensively altered by Messrs. Watson and Mayhew, of London by incorporating the English notes taken by Mr. Watson, secretary of the Conference. French notes were also officially taken on the deliberations and were consequently written into the original French edition by the authors themselves. From the latter version the several translations were made into Esperanto, German, Italian, Spanish, Serbian and Polish. A correspondingly studied and exact translation into English was finally accomplished by L. W. Rodenberg, assisted by Miss Rose Ranson, in Jacksonville, Illinois, who employed so far as possible the Watson-Mayhew version. Thus the several translations are in actual conformity—a happy fact which proves the success of the conference, though its cost in effort and money may not easily be estimated. It represents a colossal achievement—one for which all brailledom should be grateful and which should inspire cooperation in establishing great results of uniformity. A work of this kind is epoch-making in character, being as difficult of accomplishment as it is important.

Every school for the blind should purchase a copy for each of its music teachers. If it fails to do this, every teacher should have sufficient concern for his or her enlightenment and efficiency to purchase a copy individually. Every free lending library should have copies both in ink-print and braille. Many musicians will be able to procure copies for themselves; but if this is not possible they should not fail to apply to their library for a loan of the text.

L. W. RODENBERG.





Manufacturing Appliances for the Blind.

\* \* \*

## THE THIBERGE APPARATUS

The Thiberge apparatus manufactured by the American Braille Press and just placed at the disposal of the blind enables a blind music professor to teach music to sighted pupils with the greatest facility. The Thiberge apparatus is shaped like a book, but there is nothing inside. The interesting part of the Thiberge apparatus is the cover. The cover is easily distinguished by the six little knobs which are located on each of the six shutters. There are six shutters in two groups of three. The upper three are concerned with the Treble or Sol clef, the lower three with the Bass or Fa clef. The middle shutter of both groups extends slightly outwards to the left when the apparatus faces the pupil.

The following list gives the range of notes included in each of the six apertures:

**Upper three shutters**  
**Treble or Sol clef**

*Top shutter:*

From La or A above the line to Re or D above the line inclusive.

*Middle shutter:*

From Re or D below the line to Sol or G above the line inclusive.

*Lower shutter:*

From Sol or G below the line to Do or C below the line inclusive.

**Lower Three Shutters**  
**Bass or Fa clef**

*Top shutter:*

From Do or C above the line to Fa or F above the line inclusive.

*Middle shutter:*

From Fa or F below the line to Si or B above the line inclusive.

*Lower shutter:*

From Si or B below the line to Mi or E below the line inclusive.

Naturally, both Bass and Treble clefs can be read simultaneously by making a simultaneous use of both slides.

In case clefs other than Sol and Fa are required, special metal plaques of Braille, prepared for this purpose, can be substituted in the slides. The two tabs located to the right of the apertures, and which indicate the clef to the pupil can also be removed and substituted by clefs desired. When not in use, the above mentioned special plaques of Braille for other clefs, may be fastened to the back of the apparatus by the flap placed there for that purpose. The part of the slides seen by the pupil are made of washable composition and can be removed and cleaned if necessary.

# A PRINTING PLANT FOR THE PORTUGUESE BLIND

By MATTOSO DA FONSECA

President

of the Asilo-Escola Antonio Feliciano de Castilho, Lisbon.

Braille printing which has recently been established at Lisbon through a printing press, a gift of Mr. William Nelson Cromwell, President of the American Braille Press, is not only destined for the culture of the blind of Portugal but it will extend its beneficial work to the blind in all countries where the Portuguese language is spoken.

People of the Portuguese tongue are found scattered throughout the five continents of the world including Portugal and Brazil and Portuguese possessions in the islands of the Atlantic, in Africa, India, China and Oceania. The blind populations in these lands are as follows: Portugal 6,324, Brazil 29,870, Portuguese colonies approximately 12,700, making a total of 48,894. It must be remembered that in Portugal, as in other countries, official statistics do not include as blind those with such impaired vision who can only read writing in relief, this fact from a pedagogical standpoint almost doubles the number of blind. Although the percentage of those who can read is very small, it is undeniable that this percentage is augmenting constantly.

Portugal and Brazil, countries speaking the same language and whose orthography was officially made uniform recently by the Academies of both nations, the blind of both countries find that they have a common interest in the progress of their intellectual culture.

As there was no good Braille printing press in either of these countries there were no periodicals for the blind speaking the Portuguese language, but presses were necessary to inculcate in the blind ideas of modern life, and to keep them in touch with the progress and the moral and material efforts made on their behalf.

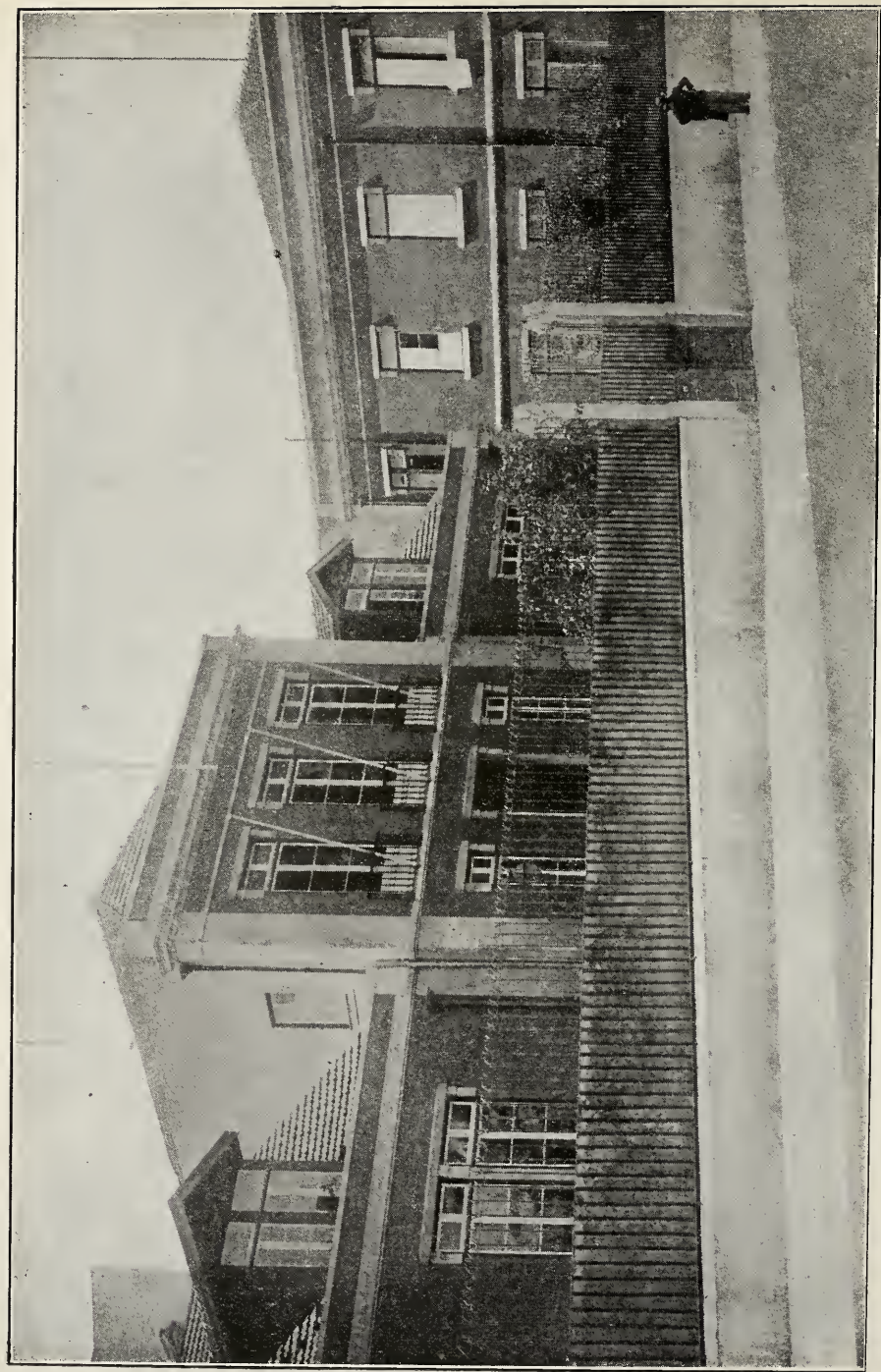
The American Braille Press, pursuing the high ideal which it has set itself to improve the world of the blind with its philanthropic and refining work, has come to fill that gap and to that end it has offered one of its magnificent printing presses to the Asilo-Escola Antonio Feliciano de Castilho. As the education of the blind is not provided by the State, the Asilo-Escola Antonio Feliciano de Castilho is under government control and is considered an official institution. Found-





Inauguration of Printing Press for the Portuguese Blind. From left to right: Messrs. Tavares de Mello, Secretary to the Minister of Foreign Affairs (Director of the School); Mattoso da Fonseca, Member of the Central Aid Commission of Lisbon, President of the National Society of Arts of Lisbon (President of the Managing Committee of the School). Further back: Mr. Portugal, First Secretary to the United States Legation; His Exc. John Glover South, United States Minister; His Exc. Jesse-Curely, French Minister; A. d'Oliveira Alves, Department Manager at the National Printing House (Director of the School); Zuzarte de Mendonça, Publicist, Librarian of the Statistical Department (Vice-President of the Board of Directors of the School, representing the President who is at present Minister of Colonies); Engineer Chambica da Fonseca, Head of the Statistical Department (Vice-President of the Managing Committee of the School).





Asilo-Escola Antonio Feliciano de Castilho



Mattoso da Fonseca

ed in 1888, this school (named for a great blind Portuguese poet) is the principal and oldest institution of its kind in Portugal and it is the center of propaganda for the education of the blind.

In Portugal there are between six and seven thousand blind, one half of whom are children capable of being taught. Portugal, after Russia, has the greatest percentage of blind of all European countries.

St. Louis, King of France, founded the Hospice National des Quinze-Vingts in 1260 for the care of 300 blind. In Portugal where so many charitable institutions attest the

generosity of our race, the blind have been forgotten. The State has never provided them with a home or school.

The appeal made by our Association forty-three years ago on behalf of the blind has only just been noticed by the authorities and the Central Welfare Commission of Lisbon, who have now taken our school under their patronage and seek out blind, abandoned children.

Lisbon alone however should not assume the task of aiding the blind of the whole country. There should be schools in the most populous provincial districts and all Portuguese from north to south should unite in founding them so that we, a civilized race, be not so hopelessly behind the times in matters concerning the blind.

In entering into possession of the generous gift made by Mr. William Nelson Cromwell, the Asilo-Escola Antonio Feliciano de Castilho assumes the charge of the publication of the monthly review "Revista dos Cegos", the first number of which appeared on the day of the inauguration of the printing press, as well as all other publications for technical education and pure cultural purposes.

One can understand the impression of joy and hope which this happy event has made upon the blind and upon those connected with work for the blind in Portugal. The same sentiment of happiness and gratitude will be shared by all those blind scattered in all lands where the Portuguese tongue is spoken.

# GIRL SCOUTING SPELLS “ OPPORTUNITY ” TO MANY BLIND GIRLS

By HELEN WARD STEVENS,  
Wellesley Hills, Mass.

Member of the Board of Directors and of the Program Committee of the National Girl Scout organization.

“ To the children of America whose faces are turned toward the light of a new day and who must be prepared to meet a great adventure.”

These words—the dedication of “Special Education: the Handicapped and the Gifted”—may well be the watchword of all our work for boys and girls today ; but especially of the thought and planning, the efforts and vision which have for their purpose to give more abundant life and happiness to those children handicapped by blindness, crippled limbs, deafness, tuberculosis or other illness, whose horizons often are institution walls.

“Special Education: the Handicapped and the Gifted”—notable among the publications of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection—emphasizes not only the particular importance of recreation during the period of adolescence, but also the great value of Girl Scouting in this direction.

Girl Scouting aims to help girls from ten to eighteen to learn the magic of useful, happy, purposeful living. The key activities of the program are:

Camping  
Community Service  
Handicraft  
Health and First Aid  
Homemaking  
Woodcraft activities and nature lore

A girl becomes one of the world-wide Girl Scout sisterhood when, after a short period of probation, she promises, in the presence of her troopmates:

“On my Honor, I will try: to do my duty to God and my country, to help other people at all times, to obey the Girl Scout Laws.”

She is a Girl Scout, one of a growing band of 231,708 in the



United States on December 31, 1932; of a round million in twenty-nine countries throughout the world. At once her horizons begin to widen.

A Girl Scout troop is divided into patrols of from six to eight girls, each with a leader chosen from and

ing girls to reach agreement in the small, face-to-face encounters of patrol meetings, and how to assume and delegate responsibility. Best of all, it teaches that in group discussion ideas rise and fall without respect to persons. To realize this



Four members of Girl Scout Troop 83  
Missouri State School for the Blind, St. Louis.

by the group. In the patrol system lies the pivot around which all Scouting swings.

Out of work and play together in the patrol grow those loyalties upon which the troop and the community can depend. Ultimately, the patrol system, because it meets the need for companionship and self-government, also meets the need for teach-

is to understand the principle of democracy.

"To many blind girls Girl Scouting spells Opportunity—", says Kathryn E. Maxfield\* in her helpful

\* Formerly supervisor of educational research, American Foundation for the Blind, New York City; now director of personnel and research, Perkins Institution, Watertown, Massachusetts.



pamphlet "Girl Scouting for Blind Girls." "Opportunity written in capitals—" she continues, "Opportunity to become directly acquainted with Nature, to learn for the fun of it many things which are outside the regular school curriculum, to learn to do, as well as to accept,



Troop 24. — First Aid.

kindnesses, and, above all, to fraternize with seeing girls of their own age. These things the Girl Scout movement *should* bring to visually handicapped girls, if it is to fulfill its mission to them, and these things it *can* bring them if some of the special problems connected with Girl Scouting for the blind are clearly understood."

As these lines are written, the National Girl Scout Organization, with Headquarters at 570 Lexington Avenue, New York City, has some information of Girl Scout troops and Brownie packs in eighteen schools for the blind. They are the:

Illinois School for the Blind, Jacksonville

Kentucky School for the Blind, Louisville  
 Minnesota State School for the Blind, Faribault  
 Institute for the Blind, Jackson, Mississippi  
 Missouri School for the Blind, St. Louis.  
 New York State School for the Blind, Batavia  
 Catholic Institute for the Blind, the Bronx, New York  
 The Lighthouse, New York (Manhattan)  
 North Carolina School for the Blind, Raleigh  
 Ohio School for the Blind (planned), Columbus  
 Oklahoma School for the Blind, Muskogee  
 Oklahoma State Institute for Deaf, Blind and Orphans, Taft



Troop 24. — First Aid.

Home for the Blind, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania  
 Tennessee State School for the Blind (2 Girl Scout troops and a Brownie pack), Nashville

Texas School for the Blind, Austin  
 Territorial School for the Blind and  
 Deaf, Honolulu, Hawaii  
 School for the Blind and Deaf,  
 Pasay-Rizal, Philippines  
 Asylum for the Blind, San Juan,  
 Porto Rico (Girl Scout troop,  
 Brownie pack)

It is impossible to give accurate estimate of the number of Girl Scouts this list represents, as many girls in hospitals and resident schools share in Girl Scout activities who never register, and some of these troops and packs are not registered at Girl Scout national headquarters. Thirteen of these troops had 197 registered Girl Scouts on April 1, 1933. Any effort to estimate the number of blind and partially sighted girls who are members of regular troops would be only a guess.

England has been carrying Girl Guiding to its physically handicapped, including those blind and partially sighted, very successfully, for many years. For a fascinating record of its activities and policies, the reader is referred to *The Extension Book*, published by The Girl Guides Association, 17-19 Buckingham Palace Road, London. Another very useful publication of theirs is *The Mauve Book of Games*, adapted especially for Extension troops.

The national Girl Scout organization is undertaking as an important part of its program:

(1) to aid local groups in securing fine type leaders particularly fitted for leadership of physically handicapped girls, blind, crippled, deaf;

(2) to help provide Girl Scout training for these leaders;

(3) to consider always the potentialities of the physically handicapped Girl Scout in all development of the Girl Scout program;

(4) to share with institution heads and Girl Scout leaders everywhere the experience and thinking of authorities in this field;

(5) to aid in making Girl Scouting more widely available to physically handicapped girls, both in institution troops and as members of regular troops.

There is constant effort to stress as fundamental the importance and obligation of the best leadership for every troop of physically handicapped Girl Scouts; and the fact that there is no special program for these girls other than the regular Girl Scout program. Every community is urged to require in its leaders of blind, crippled or deaf troops these qualifications:

Above the average fineness of character, sense of responsibility, patience, enthusiasm.

A wholesome attitude toward physical disability.

Some Girl Scout training and experience with a regular troop.

Some knowledge of the girls, the limitations, possibilities, and particular psychology of their handicap.

American Girl Scout leaders approve England's experience and belief that the ideal arrangement for an institution troop is a well trained captain from outside with one of the institution's staff as lieutenant. Often, however, no qualified outside leader is available, or the institution heads may prefer a member of the staff; but it usually proves valuable to have one outside Girl Scout worker in each troop.

Each community and leader must work out the arrangement best, or possible, for each troop, remembering that most physically handicapped troops need more leaders than a



Ball Pass, one of Troop 24's favorite games.

regular troop, that *the program at best moves slowly.*

Regular Girl Scouting can be given blind girls; it is being done by leaders with ingenuity and imagination. It is the judgment of experienced and successful leaders, both in Girl Scouting and in the field of education of the physically handicapped, that changes in the regular badge or rank requirements should be made *only* if absolutely necessary, and should be considered as exceptions always. Different ways of doing things may be made a game and an adventure.

The girls themselves want no changes, no concessions. To do what other girls are doing, *just* as they do them, is one of Girl Scouting's great gifts to the physically handicapped.

In the last eighteen months, the National Girl Scout Organization has been able, through the generous cooperation of the American Foundation for the Blind and the New York Chapter of the American Red Cross, to provide the following

material for blind and partially sighted Girl Scouts and their leaders:

A pamphlet, "Girl Scouting for Blind Girls", by Kathryn E. Maxfield. These suggestions and recommendations by an authority are sent free on request to institution heads, communities interested in sponsoring troops of blind and partially sighted girls, and leaders of such troops.

Braille copies of eleven Girl Scout nature pamphlets: the three Girl Scout Nature Trail Guides, Tenderfoot, Second Class, and First Class; and eight First Class Nature Projects. The texts, written by Dr. Bertha Chapman Cady, Girl Scout Nature Consultant, were read, and when advisable adapted for blind girls, by Kathryn E. Maxfield. Miss Maxfield added also out of her experience lists of additional reference books in braille.

Braille transcription of "Tami: the Story of a Chipmunk", by Bertha Chapman Cady.

All work on these braille copies has been done by volunteers. Duplicate copies of the pamphlets may be secured from the Committee on Braille, New York Chapter of the American Red Cross, 315 Lexington Avenue, New York City, at a little less than actual cost of duplication.

A new Girl Scout Handbook is planned for issue in the fall of 1933. Through the courtesy of the American Red Cross this too is to be transcribed into braille by expert volunteers, and copies offered at cost of duplication.

The National Girl Scout Organization has fuller information of Nashville's (Tennessee) two blind Girl Scout troops than of any others. Nashville is fortunate in having the active interest and cooperation in all its Girl Scout activities of some fine



colleges and universities. The girls in the School for the Blind troops are carrying the regular Girl Scout program, with few adaptations. These adaptations are carefully planned to demand from the blind girl just as much effort and accomplishment as the regular requirements demand from the sighted girl. The following glimpses are taken from recent letters from Nashville:

"It is necessary of course to have infinite patience in helping these girls learn the nature work. This sounds a bit schoolish but really isn't done that way at all for the girls have a large campus with many beautiful trees, shrubs and lots of flowers. There are always lots of birds around the campus also. The difficulty is that they must see with their hands and sometimes it is hard to make a girl realize what a bird looks like if she has never seen one.

"One girl made an amusing remark one day when they were discussing chickens. She could easily under-



Troop 24 presents Perrot and Perrette.

stand an animal that had a leg at each corner like a table but when they told her the chicken only had two legs set under its body she said she couldn't see how it could walk without dragging on the ground at the back.

"We cut pictures of birds life-size, let them feel the picture, then describe the bird, its habits, read poetry or prose about it, then turn this into a guessing contest. At another meeting we do the same about flowers.

"We study the leaves of trees, The girls trace them on stiff paper, then a girl with vision cuts them out, and the group makes spatter prints."

"Each Saturday this spring our Little House and Outdoor Committees on the Council have arranged a nature program. Some expert in nature study from one of our universities or schools meets the girls, all of the Nashville Scouts who care to go, at the new log house we have in Percy Warner Park. This is a very



Troop 19. — Nature Study.



large natural park about ten miles out of town. A hike is taken, and the instructor tries to help the girls recognize the trees, birds, wild flowers, rocks, and animals found along the way.

"One of the members of the troop committee has secured automobiles each Saturday and taken the blind girls out on this excursion. They walk and run, laugh and sing around the park just like any other girls. Once in a while a girl bumps into a tree or takes a tumble over a rough spot but she gets up laughing and her companions help her around the next one."

"The privilege of using the school bus makes it possible for the girls to take part in all nature hikes, and other general scouting activities. Two of the girls were in camp last summer, one of them being awarded the highest honors in nature work. For 'Scouts' Own' at the beginning of National Girl Scout Week, several

of the girls helped in decorating the Girl Scout hut, and one of them sang a solo as a part of the program. "This shows that our troops from the School for Blind have a very definite part in our plans and activities, and suggests that with the proper cooperation the same thing could be done in other schools of this kind."

I know that this brief report of small beginnings—of efforts to make Girl Scouting contribute its full share to enrichment of the life of the blind—will be read mainly by those who know and believe in the best thinking of the day in the field of education of the blind. Those readers who may be interested to know more in detail of what the national Girl Scout organization is attempting—and hoping—or who have helpful information or suggestions, are cordially invited to write to Girl Scout National Headquarters, 570 Lexington Avenue, New York City, U. S. A.

## FORM FOR BEQUEST

I give and bequeath to the American Braille Press, Inc.  
598, Madison Avenue, New York, N. Y., the sum of  
..... Dollars to  
the general use of the said corporation.

.....  
(Signature)

.....  
(Address)

# TWENTY YEARS LIBRARIAN FOR THE BLIND

By S. C. SWIFT \*

Chief Librarian, National Institute for the Blind, Toronto.

On September 1, 1913, I entered upon my duties as librarian of what was then known as the Canadian Free Library for the Blind. Since the beginning of 1909 I had served as Secretary to the Board of Management of that organization so that I was not a complete stranger to the nature of the work I had undertaken on the date mentioned. The difficulties I had to meet and overcome were, nevertheless, both serious and interesting.

The Canadian Free Library for the Blind had been organized in 1906 and had begun its active work on July 1, 1907. It was lodged in the home of its founder, the late E.B.F. Robinson, M.A., in the village of Markham, some twenty miles distant from the city of Toronto, the capital of the Province of Ontario. At that time its catalogue listed only eighty-one volumes and its reading public was represented by twenty-six names. Though situated in and organized under the laws of the Province of Ontario, the policy of the library was from the outset gradually to extend its operations over the whole of the Dominion of

Canada. At the date on which I entered upon my duties as librarian this object had been realized so far as amount of territory was concerned though the reading list numbered but 190 names the catalogue some 1200 volumes, while the circulation amounted to about 450 loans per month. (The library had been transferred to Toronto in 1911, its Founder and first Director having died in 1908). In the twenty years which have elapsed since that eventful first of September, the number of those using the facilities of the library has grown to exceed 1000; the catalogue lists more than 16,000 volumes; while the circulation has grown to close to 30,000 for the official year 1932-33.

In the early days of my librarianship experiences were many and varied, but the most interesting and important was that relating to the economic and social life of the blind of Canada.

Shortly after entering into office I realized, that, though books were a necessity to the intellectual and spiritual development of our group, there was another need of vast significance, to satisfy which very little had till then been done in the

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\* Blind.

Dominion as a whole—the need of bread and butter as represented by partial or complete economic independence. To meet this demand and this need, the Canadian National Institute for the Blind was organized in 1918. It was the direct result of the experience gained through the operations of the library under my charge. But the Institute from the beginning assumed a position of such preeminent importance that it overshadowed the activities of the library to the extent of incorporating the latter into its own structure in 1919 as its Library and Publishing Department. In fact, this absorption was foreseen and recognized as inevitable from the moment when the Institute idea first took definite shape. Since the amalgamation with the Institute the work of the library has steadily expanded and become more useful to those it serves.

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What is the first duty of any librarian but more especially of a librarian for the blind? In my view it is not merely to loan books, magazines and music—anyone with a modicum of intelligence and a list of submitted titles to guide him can do that... The first duty of the librarian is to secure the confidence of his public by proving his sincerity, his sympathy, his zeal. How is this to be accomplished in our case, where the mails take care of the actual distribution and return of loans and where the librarian meets personally but a small percentage of his clientele? The answer is simple. There is always—in Canada at any rate—a large correspondence in connection with library work for the blind. Many of the daily grist of letters are

formal, containing little more than lists of titles desired: these may generally be filed without comment. But many others contain requests for special information (not always about books), for advice, for assistance. An old gentleman past the Biblical allotment of years (he was evidently lonely and neglected) once asked me to get him a wife to cheer his solitude and lighten his darkness: he probably regretted those far-off days of the history of La Nouvelle-France when the pioneers would gather with quick-beating pulses on the strand below the frowning cliff of Quebec to await the long-overdue vessels from La Mère-Patrie with their cargoes of fair damsels who were sent out by a paternally solicitous government to bring a ray of sunshine into the dingy log cabins of the woodsmen. Alas! those days have long since passed into the limbo of legend. I was therefore not able to satisfy the legitimate longings of my old and naively trusting correspondent. Many other letters contain confidential details of personal or family history and serve as safety-valves for the escape of pent-up feelings.... To one and all of these last categories the librarian should give his closest attention, his best thought, his deepest sympathy. He should never begrudge the time required to reply at all necessary length—even extending letters at times beyond the bounds of the immediate subject; for very many of our group long to receive letters (it does not seem to matter much whether in type or Braille)—the longer the better.

For twenty years I have adhered to this policy with the result that I have made an appreciable number of sincere and worth-while friends, most of whom I have never yet seen in the flesh.

Some years ago I endeavored to initiate a sort of discussion group among our readers for the purpose of increasing genuine appreciation of literature through a better knowledge of the fundamentals of criticism.

As is usual in such matters, the response to my suggestion was immediate and fairly general, indicating a real desire for improvement. For several months my mail contained a daily budget of letters discussing books then *en lecture* and frequently asking for information about some particular point of critical value. However, I was not much surprised to discover that in reality most of these enthusiastic seekers after literary truth were mere *velléitaires*: they would like to read with a little more than the usual vague sense of undefined pleasure or dissatisfaction so characteristic of the ordinary patron of the public library: but the labor of concentration and of consecutive thought was just a little beyond them and they soon fell by the wayside. Nevertheless, an élite minority have remained faithful.... with, I know, considerable profit and growing pleasure for themselves. It is rather curious to note the character of some of the membership in this band of *Saints*.

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In a distant province some thousand miles from our library, lives a young woman for whom I have a profound respect and a sincere admiration. She is quite deaf as well as having of course, defective vision; she is inclined to be *poitrine*, though not to the point of active disease; and she suffers other disabilities and discomforts which would make many a man groan.

Yet she is always cheerful, sees the funny side of life's joke, is constantly helping others....and is an indefatigable reader. When I announced my desire to talk about books with our readers this young lady was among the first to accept the suggestion. Her début was rather inchoate, so far as any knowledge of real criticism was concerned; but she showed intelligence and, above all, grit and constancy. Gradually her ideas cleared, her expression became more direct and energetic; she borrowed works on criticism *per se* and made every effort to judge her books on their merits as literature. She is still faithful in well-doing and discusses her reading with an intelligence, penetration and verve which would do honour to many a professional critic.... This case alone justifies my attempt.

Two thousand miles away in another direction, lives another young woman still more remarkable than the one just described. She is blind and deaf, has one leg amputated and her hands are seriously crippled with rheumatism. None the less, she also is bright and cheerful, writes very passable poetry, is taking a course at the Hadley Correspondence School and, what is more to the point of the present paper, she reads with keen insight and discrimination. Though not as *expansive* as her distant colleague this girl is just as determined to improve her mind; and I am happy to think that our Institute library is of some real help in the accomplishment of her resolve.

A young man on a prairie farm shows his appreciation of what I have been trying to do by sending me every now and then some verse than which I have seen thousands worse in our newspapers and magazines. This man's speciality (in



the reading line) is, as you might expect, poetry, which he discusses (though not so frequently as I could wish) with real critical appreciation.

And let me close this part of my story by referring to a blinded soldier in a little shack on a western ranch. This man's particular loves are travel and science. Having knocked about the world considerably before losing his sight, he has a much closer and more personal feeling of the interest of voyaging than the simon-pure stay-at-home. He has read nearly all (I should be inclined to say *all*) our travelogues, which he discusses with that insight born of actual experience. In science his hobby is meteorology and radio. And I have had many a letter from him (and not a few original articles) on these subjects. Of course, in this instance I cannot take much of the credit to myself, since this man is of a superior type; but I have had some influence, I think, in drawing him out and securing his friendship, so that he will talk about his books, his experiences, his thoughts—yes, even the weather conditions prevailing in his district.....

To have gained the confidence and friendship of such men and women—only one of whom I have ever met—gives me solid satisfaction and makes me feel that, in spite of many discouragements and disappointments, there is much joy and some success in life after all.

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Apart from the purely personal equation, the technical business of a librarian is to loan books. Now the success of any branch of commerce depends largely upon the extent to which its affairs are brought before

the attention of the public. It does indeed pay to advertise. How then should our books be advertised? How should the interest of our public be stimulated to the point of increased demand? The first step in our own case was to discontinue the publication of ink-print catalogues and to substitute Braille. This produced immediate improvement; but it was not enough.

As a pupil at a certain American School for the Blind, I had, for about two years, been attached to the printing department in the capacity of assistant stereotyper. Therefore, when our library in 1917 purchased a plate-making machine I was in a position to operate it. One of the first things I did was to issue a few pages of items of literary interest, performing the actual press work by means of an ordinary clothes wringer which I turned by sheer wrist and elbow power. Soon this beginning developed into our monthly magazine, the Braille Courier, since book news alone was scarcely sufficient to draw general attention to our activities. But we have never lost sight of our original intention and the Courier has always remained a principle medium of the dissemination of information about our special goods. Now, however, our monthly lists of new accessions are divorced from the magazine properly so-called and are published in a small literary supplement included as an insert. This supplement contains also an article or two about one or more of the authors whose works are represented in our catalogue, and in addition a selected (short) list of special titles grouped under the caption "We Recommend" and which I briefly discuss. It is interesting to note how many of our readers regularly ask that these recommended works be added to

their schedules filed at our circulation desk. Taking a leaf from the book of the National Institute for the Blind of London, the monthly accessions are briefly annotated. All these methods result in keeping our work constantly before the attention of our reading public, stimulate interest, tend to increase a genuine appreciation of literature for its own sake....and incidentally make the Depression but a dim rumour from a far country so far as our library work is considered.

For the past three years our growth has been steady and in some respects rather remarkable. In the last twenty years our list of readers has increased 500%, our circulation between 500 and 600% and our catalogue 1400%. Our territory has grown to include not only the whole of Canada but also the Dominion of Newfoundland and, quite recently, the British West Indies.

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As to the deductions to be drawn from my experience it is quite evident (as indeed was known and acknowledged long before this libra-

ry was organized) that a blind librarian must be taken as axiomatic so far as the ability to conduct a library is concerned. But his best place is in the administrator's chair, not at the circulation desk. Of course, no one will deny (that would be foolish), that blind assistants can discharge every several duty connected with our library work—if the question of economy be not seriously considered. In our case we have never had unlimited financial resources at our command and have therefore been forced to employ as few people as possible compatible with the needs of the service. Speed and quick precision are essentials in a growing business, and I think it cannot seriously be argued that thousands of volumes can be handled in their various aspects as quickly by the blind as by the sighted. Either the work must be slowed down or the number of employees be greatly increased if the lack of vision is to be disregarded in our profession. But, as already indicated, the main thing is *finance*. Anyhow, I speak only of my own experience and my own deductions. Others have different views and I do not feel competent to disprove them.

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# A CHARITABLE WORK IN COCHINCHINA

BY A. LUZERGUES\*

Principal, School for the Blind, Cholon.

The School for the Blind at Cholon is one of the institutions which does the most credit to charitable works in Cochinchina. Even if the merit of its inception cannot be entirely attributed to the Government, it must be admitted that through its moral and financial co-operation the work was able to survive and develop until the moment arrived when the School for the Blind was accepted as an official local charity. It had to pass through many vicissitudes and surmount many difficulties before attaining its charming settlement verging on the Boulevard Armand Rousseau.

The question of aid for the blind in Cochinchina was first raised in 1899 by Nguyen-Van-Chi. A native of Mytho, he was appointed principal interpreter at Hué when he suddenly became blind. He tried every means to recover his sight, consulting the best doctors but was pronounced incurable. Being very devout he solicited the means to make a pilgrimage to Lourdes to entreat a miraculous cure from heaven. The Government, which

was keenly appreciative of his services, gave him this satisfaction, but he was not cured. A fortunate coincidence put him in touch with an active member of the Valentin Haüy Association. He went to Paris to become acquainted with the methods of re-education, particularly with reading and writing in Braille as he foresaw that that would help him to begin life anew.

Like Maurice de la Sizeranne he was overwhelmed with a desire to be helpful and decided to devote himself to the relief of his unfortunate brothers so he left for Saïgor. Immediately upon his arrival he began work to put his plans into effect as quickly as possible. At the beginning of his teaching a priest offered him part of his house, so the School for the Blind was born in a simple room in the presbytery of Cau-Kho.

A few influential people took an interest in the new charity and the Governor Ryodier granted a subsidy for the maintenance of five and later of ten pupils. In view of the success which the school achieved it was placed later under direct supervision of the Chief of the Province of Cholon. Funds were

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\*Blind.

# School for the Blind, Cholon.

Main  
Building.



Workshops.



Class  
rooms.





given for the erection of more convenient buildings—the school then counted 15. Unfortunately the site was not well chosen, isolated in the Plain of Tombs and the lack of hygienic inspection resulted in the death of six of the fifteen pupils from beri-beri. The master himself succumbed to the terrible malady and the survivors scattered; the School for the Blind was no longer in existence... the idea nevertheless was not to perish.

All Annamese owe a debt of gratitude to the generous man who in advance of the times, devoted all his efforts to relieve the handicapped and who, through courage of his convictions, succeeded in accomplishing such a difficult task, particularly in a country where it collided with different accepted ideas. He was a remarkable master and his pupils having become professors in their turn, have demonstrated the excellence of his methods. His adaptation of the Braille alphabet to the Annamese language is an admirable piece of work.

Nguyen-Van-Chi died at the time when Frédéric Drouhet was forming a splendid nucleus of charities. He was ably assisted by the Governor Krautheimer who materialized Drouhet's ideas : he showed decision and vision. At his instigation the buildings in the Plain of Tombs were demolished, the material served for the erection of a new school, this time in the European quarter of Cholon. The school was re-opened in 1905.

At first mutual instruction was given, older pupils teaching the younger ones what they had received at the hands of masters, but this method proved inadequate. Through the Valentin Haüy Association a competent director was found and appointed as principal

of the School for the Blind in 1906. He is still managing the institution with incomparable ability, activity and devotion. Requests for admission to the school increased and for some years the work prospered, but expenses increased and receipts decreased which threatened the very existence of the school. To frustrate such a calamity the mayor of Cholon decided to make it a municipal responsibility. Strengthened by this support the school took new life. With the development of professional instruction apprenticeship premiums were granted to pupils, newcomers were always welcomed with the greatest cordiality by the management.

As the School for the Blind was a charitable institution in the interest of the general public it was voted unfair that the town of Cholon should bear alone the expense of its upkeep, so from January 1919 the School was included in the financial budget of Cochinchina. This measure spelt solution, all apprehension as to its future vanished and possibilities of great development, since achieved, were foreseen. The buildings erected in 1905 were in bad condition and were insufficient for our needs so in 1924 it was decided to construct a new school on a bigger and healthier site; carefully studied plans were made and the building was begun in 1927 and inaugurated in 1929 by the Governor of Cochinchina, Mr. Krautheimer, who a quarter of a century earlier had so nobly furthered the cause of the blind.

This new institution has been working now for three years to the satisfaction of all. It consists of a main building, dormitory, refectory, class rooms and offices; another building the greater part of which (400 sq. Meters) is assigned to

# School for the Blind, Cholon.

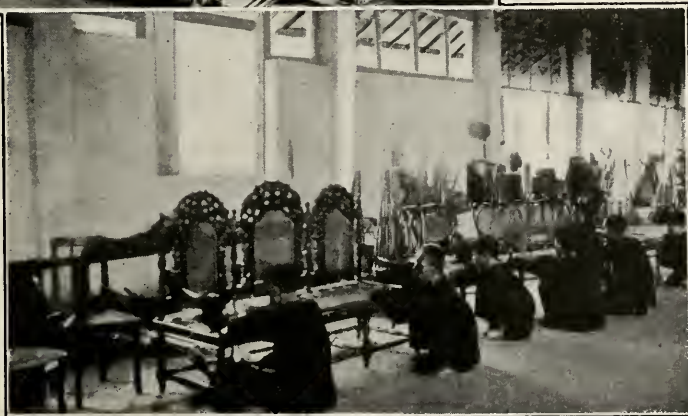
Dormitory  
with  
wooden beds.



Making  
Brooms.



Chair  
caning.



workshops; the rest is divided into store rooms or machine room. The domestic quarters, kitchen, douches, laundry, infirmary, small living quarters for part of the personnel have been erected in separate buildings; in a few years the well-laid-out gardens will be a joy to the pupils. The construction of the principal building and several other plans have yet to be completed as the school has provided for eighty pupils.

In view of such excellent results one is filled with regret that blind girls may not participate in this public welfare. They are as capable of being educated as boys but are entirely without protection against the demands of modern life which is influencing Indo-China more and more. The state of existence of these poor blind girls must be lamentable. Will the next charitable work be for the relief of those poor souls?

After a short observation the principal of the school perfected by altering somewhat the instruction given by Nguyen-Van-Chi and introduced other methods used in Paris. Musical instruction although serving as a diversion was established on a solid basis.

Professional instruction up to then had served more as a pastime than as a source of revenue, it was modified almost imperceptibly. Carpentry and filet taught by Nguyen-Van-Chi was first class but the sale of the articles was nil. These two trades disappeared gradually. The production of bamboo brooms, which are used in great numbers in government buildings and in individual homes, was introduced. The pupils learnt this easy and more remunerative work very quickly, and as brooms and brushes are usually sold in pairs brushmak-

ing was taught from 1916. The workshop for chair-caning was reorganized.

For several years only coarse brushes were made. In 1923, however, attempts at making fine brushes were made and became so perfect that a silver medal was awarded the School for the Blind at the Exhibition of Saigon in 1927. For a long time the school was dependent for its frames, which were too difficult to make, on Paris. After some time a few workmen were trained in this speciality with great care. They have a number of small electric machines which are easily handled and yield well, so much so that the school from an industrial point of view is independent. The most difficult setting, the finest polishing can be done without outside help. From fine brushmaking, we arrived at high class brushes, inlaid work, tortoise shell or beautifully moulded articles. So far Cochinchina is not too industrialized therefore brushmaking is a profitable trade for the blind; the time may not be far distant when, as in other countries, other branches of activity will have to be found for the blind of Cochinchina, that will mean long research demanding the cooperation of devotion and intelligence.

From fifteen pupils in 1906 the number has risen to thirty-nine in 1932. To this number should be added a group of nine workmen, old pupils in charge of fulfilling orders promptly. With the exception of a European matron, an accountant secretary, and a foreman brushmaker all the personnel is blind. Apart from the humanitarian side, there is valuable encouragement for the young who realize to what position perseverance and work can lead them. Order and



initiative are not innate qualities of an Annamese workman, so left to himself he would find it difficult to dispose of his produce. The school keeps its pupils as long as they wish to stay, it procures work for them and pays them; a few work for themselves but the results are poor. The grown up pupils have formed an excellent orchestra of twenty-five pieces. This band is often engaged for a fee which is divided among the instrumentalists. A few pianists could earn an appreciable sum by playing at dances, since the depression however this source of revenue is small.

It has been proved both in Europe and in America that a workshop for

the blind cannot be self-supporting; Cholon has made the same experience, in spite of its receipts increasing from 4,200 piastres in 1926 to 12,000 in 1932. Of the 10,500 piastres received in 1931, the pupils or workmen were paid 1,200 piastres in salaries apart from the sum earned by the musicians.

Is that the maximum? Decidedly not. We can and must do better. The momentary depression must pass. Then, with all the cooperation hitherto received from the Government and local business, the School of the Blind will continue its career in the path of progress for the still greater welfare of its pupils, but this is the work of the future.



School for the Blind, Cholon. — The Brass Band.



# HOME TEACHING OF THE ADULT BLIND

By ISABEL W. KENNEDY

Secretary

Pennsylvania Home Teaching Society and Free Circulating Library  
for the Blind, Philadelphia.

In reading Dr. Richard Slayton French's exhaustive study of the blind, "From Homer to Helen Keller", one who has had over a quarter of a century's close contact with the wonderful results obtained through home teaching of the adult blind, cannot but regret that Dr. French has not given this important subject more attention in his book. However, he has given full appreciation to Dr. William Moon's embossed type which first made Home Teaching of the adult blind possible.

On page 130 Dr. French says "The Moon system is very excellent. It may be looked upon as the "last word" in systems using line symbols. The vogue of the Moon system shows its practical utility. It was in truth forwarded by an apostle. Moon's zeal carried him into strange lands. With unflagging energy he adapted his system to every important language of the world. Through an active propagandism of considerably over half a century, the system has come practically to share the world of the blind with the punctographic system of Braille".

As Mary Moon knelt at the bedside of her little four year old son William, ill with scarlet fever, she little dreamed that her mental sufferings and her little son's fever were the forerunner of a world-wide service to suffering mankind. As Louis Braille's mother grieved over the terrible accident to her little three year old son, when a knife slipped with which he was trying to cut leather in imitation of his father who was a saddler, what a solace it would have been to her to know that thousands of little children would obtain their education through the use of the Braille embossed type.

Louis Braille born in Coupvray, France in 1809, became totally blind soon after the accident, but William Moon born in Kent, England in 1818, retained the sight of one eye until he was twenty-one years of age. Medical and Surgical science failed completely in both cases.

It is an interesting fact that between 1840 and 1879 more than 5,000 persons in Great Britain learn-

ed to read Moon type, who would probably never have read at all without its aid and it has been growing in popularity ever since, among the thousands of persons blinded in adult life who have found the Braille dotted type beyond their sense of touch.

It was after a long and stormy voyage from England that Dr. William Moon introduced his type and Home Teaching for the first time in America in 1882 and the headquarters of Home Teaching are still in the city of Philadelphia, where the first Home Teaching Society was founded by Dr. Moon and a few philanthropic Americans.

It seems scarcely believable that in 1882 there were no means of artificial illumination except by oil and gas, no transportation in our streets except by horse cars, air travel was an unheard of dream in the minds of a few, electricity in its multiple uses, automobiles, radium and the radio were all unknown.

What has been accomplished for the blind by invention and science during those fifty-one years, the last twenty-five of which have witnessed the most marvellous scientific inventions and discoveries of any age?

The ratio of blindness to the population has decreased slightly, due to preventive and constructive medical practice, but with the exception of the radio, the blind have benefitted but little by all that science has done to bring ease and comfort to those with good sight. The chief pleasures open to all of the blind are reading and light home occupations and Moon type has been enjoyed by the adult blind for over ninety years and Braille was read by pupils in the schools for the blind in Europe one hundred and five years ago.



Mrs Isabel W. Kennedy.

There are nearly 10,000 blind persons in the State of Pennsylvania and the teaching of reading and the purchase and loan of embossed books is one of the most permanent and important phases of all work for the adult blind.

During the first sixteen years of Home Teaching the circulation of books was small. In 1898 when the Society was re-organized, the Board of Managers entered into an agreement with the Free Library of Philadelphia which resulted in the Society's books being transferred there and the Department for the Blind was opened. Many thousands of books of all kinds of literature have since been purchased and added by the Society from time to time.

A comparison of figures will help to show the growth of the work

of Home Teaching, which creates a demand for embossed books. During 1899 the circulation was 1,674 volumes among 203 readers. During 1932, 32,845 volumes were circulated among 705 active borrowers. A library of Moon embossed books has been maintained in the Carnegie Library, Pittsburgh, since a resident blind Home Teacher was given stated territory in the western part of the State in 1907. The circulation of Moon type books alone from the two libraries amounted to 21,970 volumes during 1932. The circulation of embossed books was greatly facilitated by the Bill permitting the free passage of loaned embossed books through the United States mails, which was passed by Congress in 1904.

For some years the Society has employed only blind or partially blind trained Home Teachers who are Pennsylvanians, and the time has long since passed when a Home Teacher called on a prospective pupil, gave him or her free lessons in a raised type, passed his application card on to the library and considered the case closed. The Home Teachers study family conditions, the housing of the blind, the special needs of the blind member of the family, his general physical condition, mental equipment and the possibilities of re-adjustment to the world of the seeing. Where the special services of any other organization in the State would be helpful, contacts have been promptly made and the seven teachers are far more eager to give their best service to those similarly handicapped than they are to tabulate and card-index their valuable social services. Their carefully typewritten monthly reports would however be creditable to many highly paid typists.

During 1932 the Home Teachers paid 7,786 visits to blind persons and gave 3,700 lessons to 1,164 pupils. Of the lessons 1,342 were in Moon type, 1,100 in Braille reading and 2,358 in Braille writing, pencil and typewriting, basketry, knitting, crocheting, sewing, chair-caning etc.

There is work for many more blind teachers, and it is greatly hoped that Pennsylvania will some day do as much for the blind as England does in the same sized territory. England employs 430 Home Teachers and appropriates \$133,000.00 a year for this special service. The most that Pennsylvania has provided is \$ 8,000.00 a year.

The best proof of the value of Home Teaching is shown in the following few extracts from hundreds of letters from grateful pupils that have been received by The Pennsylvania Home Teaching Society and Free Circulating Library for the Blind:

Dr. W. K. M. writes "Please accept my sincere gratitude and thanks for the very great service rendered to me individually, also my hearty appreciation of the noble work the Society is accomplishing in aiding to the comfort and happiness to the blind of our State. Miss C. by her cheerfulness, magnetism and personality did much to strengthen my morale at a time of great mental depression and by her skillful method of teaching. I was enabled to master Braille in ten days".

"Although I am in my eighty-fourth year, I am never lonesome nor unhappy for I have my library of Moon books, many of which have been given to me by friends who love me, and I also have the literature provided by your Society's library". W. G.

"An unexpected loss of vision early in the year made it advisable for me to learn to read. Under the direction of my faithful teacher I have learned to read the Moon and Braille systems and to write Braille as well. I am sure that her counsel and inspiration are a real ministry to me and many others whom she serves". (Mrs.) C. C. T.

"I wish to let you know that I hadn't read for forty years and that I am a happy woman since I learned to read Moon type." (Mrs.) L. H.

"About eleven years ago I was taught by one of your faithful Home Teachers. Today I do not know what I should do without my Moon Bible as it is my greatest comfort in life". (Mrs.) E. I. D.

"Before losing my sight I was a bookkeeper, but of course, was unable to continue my work after the misfortune of blindness came upon me. I became very melancholy, and at times did not care whether I lived or not. One of your Home Teachers called upon me one day, and I can truly say her visit was as though a ray of sunshine had suddenly burst in upon my lonely life. I began instruction immediately and have learned to read and write Braille, to typewrite and to cane chairs and through the teachers efforts I have been admitted to the piano tuning department of the city school." H. O.

"Mother learned to read after she was eighty years of age and has read almost all of the New Testa-

ment and a great deal of the Old Testament with her fingers. We are certainly truly thankful for the comfort the books you sent brought to her. This work is a great blessing to blind people. May God bless you all in it." L. M. C.

"On November 8th, my dear mother celebrated her 104th birthday and received more than one hundred friends who called to congratulate her. She still enjoys the Moon type which your Home Teacher taught her eight years ago and she reads a little every day". (Miss) C. K. K.

The future of Home Teaching rests with the philanthropic. With sufficient support, blind or partially blind Home Teachers could be given permanent territory where the blind population warranted continuous Home Teaching. At present the travelling Home Teacher has no settled home and as her work is very arduous, especially as she is obliged to adapt herself to all sorts and conditions of blind people in all sorts and conditions of circumstances, she needs a regular home for her few leisure hours. It must be recognized that the best service is not rendered by the number of miles travelled or the number of lessons given, but by the improved condition of the blind who have been visited and who are left with renewed courage, a brighter mental vision, greater faith and a stronger determination to "carry on".

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# AMERICAN BRAILLE PRESS, Inc.

## AIMS AND PURPOSES OF THE CORPORATION

### *As Expressed in its Articles of Incorporation*

"ARTICLE FIRST : The objects for which the corporation is formed are as follows :

" To raise and receive money, funds, securities and other property by voluntary contributions, subscriptions, legacies and gifts, and disburse the same for the relief of soldiers and sailors of the United States and of the nations allied or associated with it in the conduct of the late World War who have been blinded in that war or as a result thereof, and also for the relief of and aid to those in civil life blind from any cause soever in any part of the world, through such agencies as the Board of Directors or the Executive Committee of the Board of Directors may authorize.

" To own and operate and maintain, as a mode of relief and aid to the blind, an establishment or establishments in any part of the world for the providing of reading matter, music and the like in Braille, or other method, for the use of the blind of any nation or country of the world, irrespective of whether such blind are civilians or soldiers or sailors of the nations engaged in the late World War or of other nations, including, but not by way of limitation, establishments for the printing of books, magazines and other papers in Braille or other method, and for the scientific study and development of Braille and for assisting the blind in the use thereof.

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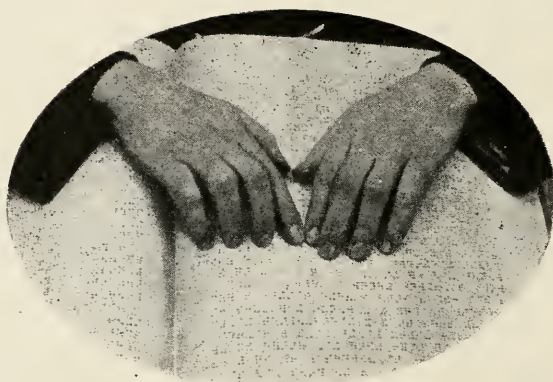
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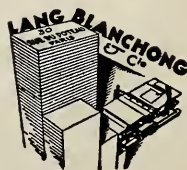
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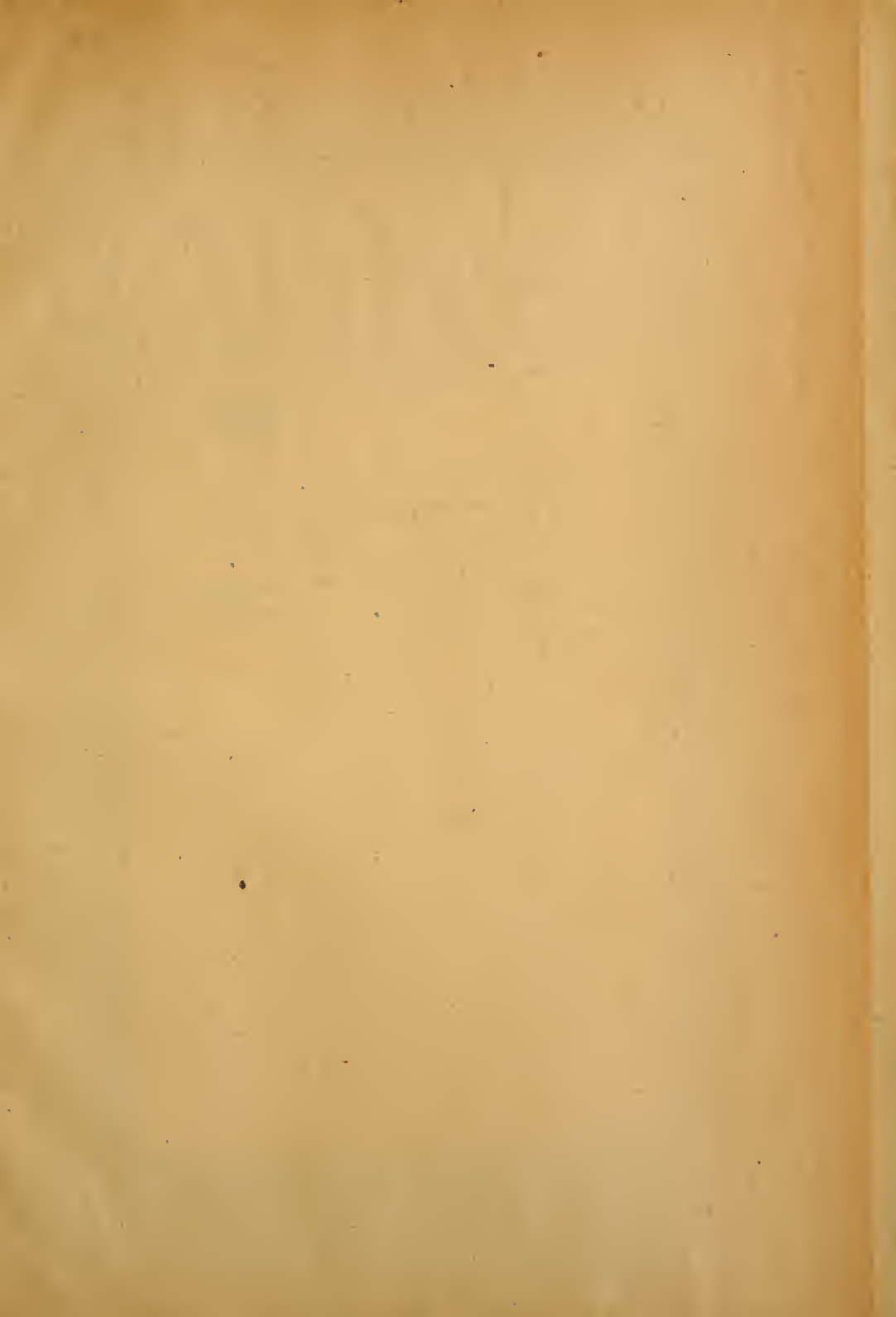
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## THE PARTICIPATION OF THE BLIND IN THE GEORGE WASHINGTON BICENTENNIAL CELEBRATION

By DOROTHEA E. JENNINGS,

Director of the Braille Department, George Washington Bicentennial Commission,  
Washington, D. C.

The celebration of the George Washington Bicentennial throughout the United States last year, handicapped by the great depression, the shouting fainter than more prosperous times would have known, nevertheless accomplished its patriotic ends with a surprising measure of success. But of more

personal interest to the blind—who were able to enjoy and participate in the celebration—was the manner of making widespread use of every facility in such a way that the part they played was real.

The celebration itself was unique because, instead of inviting people to a central exhibit, programs were



arranged in cities, towns and villages throughout the country. Each state had its own commission in charge, and over all was the national office in Washington, D. C. Plays and pageants were composed and the Colonial days in all their dignity were revived in these entertainments.

Soon after preparations for the great, nation-wide celebration were started, Congressman Sol Bloom, the national director, realized that the whole colorful event had no share for those without sight; therefore a special Braille department was inaugurated to enable the blind to participate in the ceremonies.

Its first task was to get into Braille as much educational literature about George Washington as expense would permit. Six pamphlets were selected, such as "Washington the President", "Washington at Mount Vernon", etc. Next, a history of Colonial music was embossed and sheet music that Braille readers could learn and play was also embossed. A number of the best historical dramas were issued in Braille. Thousands of copies of these books

and pamphlets were distributed among libraries and schools for the blind, including those in Hawaii and the Philippines.

All over the country there were thousands of civic and fraternal clubs planning programs. It was suggested that those without sight should put on their own plays and pageants. With this in view, particular attention was given to having musical selections embossed so that Braille readers could do the playing. Local clubs and associations for the blind cooperated to make the programs a success.

The schools for the blind were kept informed of all that the public schools were doing, and entered into competition and oratorical contests with them. Girl Scouts and Boy Scouts joined forces with the Braille students, and together they worked out their celebration ideas.

The Braille feature of this celebration was the first of its sort ever promoted. Although lack of funds left many plans in the bud, the blind in America played their part in the celebration with distinction.

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# THE CENTENARY OF THE PENNSYLVANIA INSTITUTION FOR THE INSTRUCTION OF THE BLIND

By O. H. BURRITT, Principal.

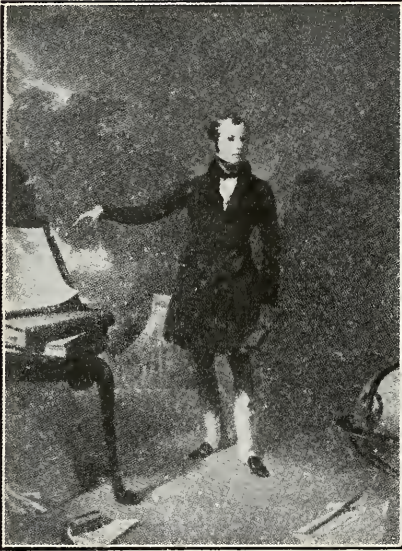
*Early history:* The beginnings of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind are clearly set forth in the early papers and archives of the Institution. The school was chartered by the State Legislature in January 1834 but there is conclusive evidence that as early as 1824 the subject of providing facilities for educating the blind was receiving serious consideration by philanthropic citizens of Philadelphia.

For a number of years previous to the opening of the school, Mr. Roberts Vaux had been engaged in inquiries on the subject of the education of blind children and youth, had made many efforts to excite an interest thereon among his fellow citizens, and had taken some steps towards organizing an association. The successful establishment of the "Deaf and Dumb Asylum" in Philadelphia in 1820 stimulated an interest in the making of similar provisions for the education of the blind. Correspondence upon the subject between Roberts Vaux—a leader among Philadelphia Friends—and J. Francis Fisher in 1829 is preserved. In 1830 Mr. Fisher went to Europe. While

there he received a letter from Mr. Vaux from which the following is an extract :

"I have long desired to see a school for this afflicted part of our fellow creatures in operation here, but how far intellectual instruction can be communicated has never been satisfactorily explained. I know that the Blind have been taught various mechanical branches of business but this, tho a great alleviation, falls short of what I should deem it a duty to contribute towards their mental improvement. Bring with thee home all the knowledge to be had on this subject and thus be qualified to take an active part in the formation of an Institution which will add to the deserved reputation of our City in her works of beneficence."

Mr. Fisher twice visited the *Institution des Jeunes Aveugles* in Paris where, as he says, he observed "the system of instruction contrived by the benevolent Haüy." Later he visited England studying institutions in successful operation there. Meanwhile, a young German—Julius Reinhold Friedlander—having finished his formal studies at the University of Leipsic and having



JULIUS REINHOLD FRIEDLANDER  
First Principal, Penna.—Institution  
for the Instruction of the Blind  
1833-1839.

taught a few years, somehow became exceedingly interested in the education of the blind and visited several institutions with the view to inform himself as to their methods of instruction. While he was thus occupied, "a book on the United States, written by the Duke of Saxe Weimar, fell into his hands, and from it Mr. Friedlander received exalted ideas of the active benevolence of the citizens of Philadelphia".

Carrying out his resolve, Mr. Friedlander made his way to the United States, landed in Baltimore in the fall of 1832, and proceeded at once to Philadelphia. He presented his letters of introduction promptly to Philadelphians who were interested to see provisions made for educating the blind. Acting upon the advice of one of the

number, he proceeded immediately to search out sightless children and happened upon two Philadelphia children—Sarah and Abraham Marsh—whom he taught in his own house and at his own expense.

Mr. Friedlander's contention that blind children can be taught having been demonstrated, steps were immediately taken to organize a school for the instruction of blind youth. A Board was selected which held its first meeting March 7, 1833, at which time Mr. Friedlander was elected Principal.

On March 25, 1833, the school was opened in a rented house on Twelfth Street above Race, with four Philadelphia pupils. The increase in the number of pupils made it necessary within a year to provide additional room by renting two houses on Thirteenth Street above Race. The corner stone of the building at Twentieth and Race Streets, which was occupied by the school for sixty-three years, was laid September 10, 1835.

*Contributions to embossed printing:* No sooner had the new school been opened than Mr. Jacob Snider, Jr., a member of the Board, addressed himself assiduously to the task of producing embossed books. So successful were his initial efforts that there was produced in connection with the school in 1833—the very first year of the school's existence—the first book embossed in America—the Gospel of Mark. The type used in this book proved, however, to be illegible, with the result that there was subsequently developed in connection with the school the "Philadelphia line type", which shared the field of embossed literature with the "Boston line type" developed in conjunction with Perkins Institution.

Another publication begun under

Mr. Friedlander's inspiring leadership was the Students' Magazine, designed to stimulate writing by the pupils. This magazine—the first of its kind ever published—continued to appear until about 1844.

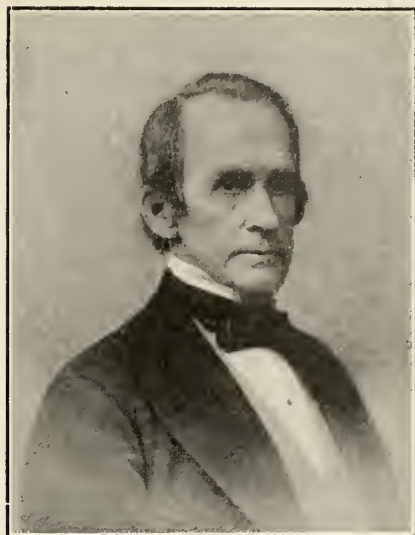
A Dictionary of the English Language, in three embossed volumes, was brought out in 1860, which some of the schools of the country purchased after considerable urging by Mr. Chapin.

Being familiar with English Braille through its use in his classroom at the Royal Normal College, and coming in contact later with "Scientific" or "American" Braille, as developed at the Perkins Institution by a blind man, Joel W. Smith, a teacher of tuning—Mr. Allen established the printing press as an adjunct to the school; became a staunch advocate of American Braille as a medium of instruction and, gathering a few others about him, held this country for Braille as against New York Point.

*Development of plans for the employment and care of adult blind:* In an effort to provide employment for worthy and needy pupils after completion of their course of training there was organized in 1851, under the leadership of William Chapin, Principal from 1849 to 1888, a "Home for the Industrious Blind", as an integral part of the Institution. In each annual report, in public addresses, and at every opportunity Mr. Chapin advocated his three-fold plan with a view to meeting the needs of the blind of all ages:

1. An institution for instruction only, as at present.
2. A working home for the employment of the industrious blind.
3. A retreat for the infirm and aged blind.

Mr. Chapin lived to see his efforts rewarded by the opening of



WILLIAM CHAPIN

Principal, Penna.—Institution for the Instruction of the Blind.

1850-1887.

the Pennsylvania Industrial Home for Blind Women in 1868, and of the Pennsylvania Working Home for Blind Men, in 1874. The opening in 1910 of the Chapin Memorial Home for Aged Blind twenty-two years after Mr. Chapin's death—completed the realization of his vision.

Investigation by the school's Field Officer—Liborio Delfino—into the condition of the blind of three states—Pennsylvania, New Jersey and Delaware—between 1903 and 1909 resulted in the opening in 1910 of the Salesroom and Exchange—a social service center in the heart of the city, for the two-fold purpose of securing employment for able-bodied, capable blind workers, and for serving the blind in every way possible. Through this medium



opportunities for employment have been found for hundreds of blind people by means of which they have been enabled to earn thousands of dollars.

*Encouragement of higher education of the Blind:* From its very beginning the school has fostered the higher education of selected pupils. An illuminating story of the relations between the school and the University of Pennsylvania was told by Thomas S. Gates, President of the University, in an address at the school during the Centenary Exercises May 4th—a story that began in 1846, only thirteen years after the school was opened, with the matriculation at the University of Walter S. Fortescue and David Loughery, and their graduation in 1850 with credit to themselves and the school which had provided their early education. President Gates stated that eighty-three students of the school had, at various times, successfully met the requirements for admission to representative American colleges and universities, such as Dartmouth, Harvard, Haverford, Princeton, Trinity, the University of Pennsylvania, Vassar and others; that twenty-three had attended schools for specialized types of higher training, such as teachers' colleges, schools of music, theological seminaries, and various hospital training schools; that these students had entered a variety of vocations which they had followed with success; and that they had demonstrated beyond question the value of a higher education to those who possess the requisite personality, intellectual ability, and character.

The present policy of the school is to encourage in every way possible every worthy and promising pupil to continue his education among those who see. In pursuance of

this policy, each year finds several graduates in high schools, colleges, universities and professional schools.

Selecting "one of the older and simpler definitions of the aim of education... the development of a universal society of useful and happy individuals," President Gates declared, "it is my sincere conviction that the Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind, in its century of devoted service toward human betterment, has exemplified to an outstanding degree one of the soundest of all educational practices; and that is the practice of adhering closely and at all times to the true aims of education."

*Development of volunteer reading:* The increase in the number of blind students attending institutions of advanced learning has stimulated a new form of welfare work—the development of a dependable volunteer service of reading in the preparation of daily assignments. Obviously, it is impossible to provide material in embossed form for each student in each of his several courses. If it were mechanically possible, the cost would be prohibitive.

It was during the World War that an interested group of women came to us to familiarize themselves with our work and so be of help to the soldiers who should return with sight impaired or lost. Mrs. Austin Purves of Chestnut Hill was quick to grasp our needs and suggested that several Bryn Mawr College students of her acquaintance might be willing to read to our extra-mural pupils. From this chance beginning has developed the volunteer reading at Overbrook. The Bryn Mawr girls come four evenings a week; the Junior League sends a number of young women; and the local branch of the National Council of

Jewish Women contributes faithfully. These readers meet the students at the school, in the readers' homes, or at the University—wherever it is most convenient. During the academic year ended June 1932, not less than one hundred fifty volunteers supplied more than six thousand hours of reading.

clubs have aided them in the preparation of their daily assignments. With the growth and expansion of the idea, the service has filtered through to the various high schools to which pupils of our school have gone after graduation here.

This program of volunteer service has also extended the knowledge



The "Old School"

Twentieth & Race Streets, Philadelphia.

Occupied by the Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind.

October 1836 - January 1899.

Because of this need, the school and the University have developed another contact through an arrangement by which seeing University students live at the school and give their services as readers in exchange for board, room and laundry.

As our students have entered other colleges and universities the reading service idea has followed them, and individuals and women's

of the abilities of blind people among those who see—the readers become apostles of the blind among their friends and in their several communities.

*Vocations of graduates:* Education seems to have made the strongest appeal to our University graduates, about one-half of them having devoted themselves to some phase of educational work. Next to edu-

cation, the commercial field has proven attractive. Of the fifty-five who attended the University of Pennsylvania, eleven have entered some form of business. Five of these are following insurance, with emphasis upon life insurance; two combine clerical work with a magazine subscription business; one conducts a leading bookstore in Seattle; one manages a machine shop. Three have become executives in work for the blind; two are lawyers. Other vocations represented are farming, physiotherapy, osteopathy, writing and the ministry.

*Co-education of Blind and seeing:* Blind students have been the beneficiaries of that general educational movement of the twentieth century by which the public school system has come to recognize its obligation to provide suitable educational opportunities for all types of handicapped children. As a result, some educators of the blind have advocated the provision in the public school system of educational facilities for blind children. Their enthusiasm has carried them too far, leading them to advocate the abolishment of the residential schools and the integration of the education of blind and seeing youth in the public school system.

There is no question that this principle has merit, but leading educators of the blind now advocate a term of residence for every child in a residential school and his subsequent enrolment in public school after he has mastered such important tools as braille, the braille writer and the typewriter.

A principle receiving increasing recognition is that the transfer from a special school to the public schools can usually be effected best at the close of the third year high school.

In some instances this move may be made a year earlier, but the fact must always be recognized that the moment this transfer is effected, adequate instruction in physical training, manual arts and music ceases.

A corollary to this general educational principle is that the few blind pupils capable of benefitting by a college course should secure their college education in existing colleges and universities. A special college for the blind, once strongly advocated in this country, finds nowadays no favor among educators of the blind.

*Physical training:* As early as 1890 the importance of physical training in the education of the blind was recognized in the Philadelphia school and provision was made for meeting these needs, but because of lack of room and equipment, the facilities were very inadequate. Having seen demonstrated at the Royal Normal College for the Blind in London the tremendous importance of physical training in educating blind youth, Mr. Allen made liberal provisions for this phase of education in the Overbrook plant, to which the school moved in January 1899. The initial step looking to the physical improvement of the pupil is taken the moment he enters school, when he is given a careful physical examination by the school's physician, the laryngologist, the dentist and the ophthalmologist. As an integral part of the new plant there was provided a modern gymnasium, playgrounds and an athletic field—all well equipped, in accordance with modern educational principles. To this equipment there was added in 1907 a bowling alley and a swimming pool—the first to be constructed in a school for the blind in the United States. Interest in and





Front View - Winter Scene

Penna. Institution for the Instruction of the Blind, Overbrook, Philadelphia.

enthusiasm for physical training is fostered by meets with other schools for the blind.

Our splendid buildings are Mr. Allen's monument ; to him are due the suggestions for its essential features, its beauty of buildings and grounds. He was the first apostle, in this country, of the value of a beautiful environment for blind children in their formative years, a creed now almost universally accepted. Overbrook was, for pupils and teachers, a spiritual rebirth much needed at the time. Mr. Allen has always considered his contribution to this achievement his greatest contribution to the school which holds a proud place among the educational institutions of Pennsylvania.

*State recognition as an educational institution:* With remarkable prevision the founders of the school forecast the real purpose of the new institution in that it was chartered in January 1834 as "The Pennsylvania Institution for the

Instruction of the Blind," thus anticipating its true status as an educational rather than a charitable institution. But in spite of these plain words and this plain intent, upon the establishment of the Pennsylvania State Board of Charities in 1867, the school was listed among the State's charitable institutions—a most unfortunate step for the blind. And here it remained until by legislative act it was transferred—June 1, 1923—to the State Department of Public Instruction, thus emphasizing its true status as an educational institution.

*Field work:* Field work was initiated under Mr. Delfino in 1903. His instructions were to locate children not under instruction and endeavor to get them into school ; to visit former pupils, learn of their success or failure, with reasons therefor ; and to aid, in every way possible, every blind person with whom he came in contact. During the six years from 1903 to 1909 the Field Officer, himself without sight, sought



out and visited every blind person he could locate in Pennsylvania, New-Jersey and Delaware—a recorded total of about 5,800, with a brief report upon each case.

An outgrowth of this work was the establishment in 1910 of a social service center—now at 1305 Locust Street—where blind people go for work, for counsel, and for every possible assistance in their efforts to secure employment. Mr. Delfino's honesty of purpose and energy of endeavor have enabled him, in the face of almost insurmountable obstacles, to render invaluable service to blind people, and they have risen up to call him blessed.

*Initiation of Research:* The research department was organized in 1916. Under the competent and interested direction of Dr. Samuel P. Hayes, Professor of Psychology at Mount Holyoke College, and his assistants, a small but efficient psychological laboratory has been maintained, mental tests established as a routine procedure, and several illuminating monographs published. During the seventeen years that this department has functioned, Dr. Hayes has interested Mount Holyoke graduates in work for the blind, no less than seventeen having entered our field of special education. These young women have rendered a service totalling seventy-eight years. Research at Overbrook and at Perkins, supplemented by the American Foundation for the Blind, has stimulated several valuable studies, the results of which have been made available in published form. Another important outgrowth is an experimental school at Perkins, which was maintained for five years jointly by that school and the American Foundation for the Blind.

*Home teachers' training course:* For many years Overbrook met the demand for home teachers. These young women, without specific training for the task, capable and devoted, made enviable records for themselves. But it was unfair to them and to their clients to send them into the field untrained and untried. To meet the need, a training course was organized in 1922 for home teachers and social workers among the blind. This is given in part at Overbrook and in part at the Pennsylvania School of Social Work in the city. Students have come from several distant states to take the course and their successes in the field have been gratifying.

*Continuity of administration:* In his address at the Centennial Exercises "Concerning the History of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind", Dr. George E. de Schweinitz, a Vice-President of the School and a member of the Board since 1905, said: "One hundred years have passed since the Institution was founded, and during this period nine men have served as its Executive Officers, or "Principals", to use the word by which they are designated.

"It is historically interesting to note that the administrations of four of them—Julius R. Friedlander, William Chapin, Edward E. Allen and Olin H. Burritt—have occupied eighty-eight years, all but twelve of the corporate existence of the school".

This continuity of management, supported by managers who have always accorded their principals entire freedom of action in formulating and carrying out the educational policies of the school is in large part responsible for the position of

leadership which the school has constantly enjoyed.

*Influence on American education of the Blind:* The Philadelphia School has played an important role in the American education of the blind. From its beginning it has been recognized as sharing with the schools in New York and Boston the position of leadership in developing sound educational principles. *Julius R. Friedlander*, *William Chapin* and *Edward E. Allen* have been recognized as leaders among American educators of the blind. Three totally blind graduates of the school organized no less than five schools for the blind. *Walter S. Fortescue* was founder and first principal (1851-53) of the Georgia Academy

for the Blind. *David Loughery* was founder and first principal (1853-54) of the Maryland School for the Blind. *William Churchman* has the distinguished record of having a leading part in founding the Tennessee and Indiana Schools, serving as the first Superintendent of the Tennessee School (1844-46); the Indiana School (1851-53); and of the Wisconsin School (1856-61).

*A Forward Look:* From the very first, educators of the blind have been confronted with the problem of providing suitable instruction for the two major groups of pupils; namely, those who are mentally keen and alert, and those who lack these qualities but have good use of their hands.



Class of senior pupils  
Penna. Institution for the Instruction of the Blind, Overbrook, Philadelphia.

The increase in equipment, the expansion of courses, and the more exact determination of individual abilities through intelligence tests and a critical study of each individual have emphasized the importance of this problem and have stimulated educators of the blind to renewed efforts to find its solution.

The principle is rapidly being accepted that increased facilities for these two groups should be provided in existing schools, or—better still—that separate schools should be provided. Many educators of the blind believe that the group of less capable pupils should be cared for on farms or in semi-rural communities where a greater variety of life experiences can be provided.

In his address on "Present Day Education of the Blind", in connection with the Centennial Exercises at Overbrook, Dr. Allen said: "Could I begin my life work over I would try to separate my flock into two distinct groups—the promising and the unpromising, and make the most of each". Accepting the "Gospel of the White House Conference" which "proclaims that every handicapped child has a right to the best education he is capable of receiving", Dr. Allen advocated the early determination of abilities through "pre-school training at home with educational tests and measurements on admittance to school." The more capable should be trained first in residential schools and subsequently among those who see, for

"diffusion in society". "For the unpromising" he "would have a less expensive and refined grouping in some country location, but even more bathed in love and sunshine and given every care and protection developmental of a happy life apart".

Such a program will commend itself to those who are keenly interested in finding a solution to this vexatious problem.

Truly this has been a century of progress, and in no field more marked than in the education of the blind. It is a far cry from Julius Friedlander and his two pupils to Overbrook with its splendid plant, its numerous staff, and an attendance of 235 pupils, all preparing for the battle of life.

We have been looking backward and with pride, upon that past which is the source of all our strength for today and our inspiration for tomorrow. The future lies before us, full of promise for victory over blindness.

At the threshold of the second century many unsolved problems confront American educators of the blind. We accept the challenge these problems present, confident that the lessons learned during the past century will enable us to find solutions. To this work American educators of the blind will give the same devotion that has characterized their efforts during the century just closed.

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# IS THE FUTURE OF THE PIANO COMPROMISED ?

By RODOLPHE ROUSSIES \*.

Professor at the Provincial Institute for the Blind, Ghlin-lez-Mons.

This is a question which surely interests a goodly number of blind, particularly those for whom the piano is a source of revenue in the form of lessons, piano-tuning, piano-selling, concerts, etc.

Considering the very limited number of professions which can be practised by the blind, and realizing that the piano is for them one of the main resources, the question cannot fail to be of the greatest interest, especially at the moment when the phonograph and radio seem to have gained the upper hand and when their worthy agents do not hesitate to speak of the death of the piano as an accomplished fact.

It is my policy to leave everyone the place due to him, and for that reason I do not wish to criticise here apparatuses more or less interesting, whose principal qualities have been to displace one another. It is however none the less true that it is high time to dam the flow of insults being hurled at the piano, and I am glad to be the first, hoping that others will follow the example.

Epicurus thought: "Esthetic sense is not absent in the pleasures of sight or form, as for the pleasures of hearing, purer still, they come nearest to the soul; are they not produced by mere vibration, by atomic motion? Now, motion is perhaps the least material part of matter."

If, starting from this thought, we consider our piano, that instrument superior to all others, which enables us to give expression to our feelings, we are prompted to ask why so many young people give it up or cannot learn to play it.

Why are so many pianos mute?

I am going to try to answer this last question.

The main reason for the greater part of children giving up the piano is the poor results obtained, giving rise to the belief that too many years are necessary to attain medium skill.

The evil resides simply in the teaching. Every professor has his school, his method, no control can rectify the mistakes and anyone can, from one day to the next, teach the piano.

Some will say: "Every method which shows results is good". Per-

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\* Blind.



sonally, I maintain that no method will be good until all methods become uniform, based on scientific facts, permitting the pupil to develop his own faculties, especially as long as there is no serious control at hand.

One excellent solution would be to make musical instruction obligatory in schools, on condition however, that this teaching be appropriate, rational, and the only way to make pianists is to use a method which has proved itself good.

Who among us, having been able to pursue his piano studies, so-called serious, does not recall extraordinary positions demanded by certain professors, merely resulting in forcing one to stoically suffer horrible cramp in the arms, wrists, hands and knuckles. The hours spent in front of the piano repeating the same exercises with an obstinacy only equalled by the incomprehensibility with which one executes them, and whose principal merit is that of stultifying one by transforming one into an automaton.

No one ignores the fact that, of musical pupils, fifty per cent stop studying after the elementary degree, twenty-five per cent persevere painfully for a year or two more, the last twenty-five per cent only continue their efforts somewhat seriously.

This musical check is due firstly to the discouragement engendered by the struggle required; secondly, it is due to the age of general study which does not leave enough time to be devoted to art.

Let us consider now the mischief caused to the piano and to those who live by it through this loss of seventy-five per cent of pupils who give up its study.

This state of affairs obliges us to realize that the enormous number

of unused pianos at the present moment is the fruit of modern unnatural education, of snobbery, error and laziness, aggravated still more by musical education which is non-existent in principle.

Of modern musical education here is one of the most characteristic exhibitions (one of thousands): who has not been present at the usual scene in a parlor which takes place when parents wish their child to play and the latter obstinately refuses to do so, in certain cases shedding tears, obliging the hostess, in order to bring a little gaiety into the party, to have recourse to the phonograph or radio?

In view of such scenes how can the piano enjoy the reputation it deserves? It is obvious that in this case mechanism can appear to the inexperienced a dangerous adversary, but even if it were considered so, it could only prove to be so to silent pianos, which enable certain sellers of mechanical musical devices to say that these are advantageously taking place of the piano.

It is also very true that when we hear pianists, the talent of the greater majority is limited to executing—and in what way!—a modern hackneyed piece and nothing more. In the wake of the foregoing two questions arise.

1. Is the piano reserved exclusively for a small minority of special people, having received by nature a quasi-miraculous gift, to be the only ones to perpetuate this keyboard instrument?—briefly, those who are called gifted. Nine tenths of intelligent, blameless mankind would be obliged to remain uninitiated, inapt, unqualified, ungifted.

2. Can the majority of fairly cultured people play the piano properly?

It is, I think, useless to persuade oneself that the first question can evoke any other than a negative reply. As to the second, we reply in the affirmative and if it has not been proved so up to the present, the teaching is solely responsible.

The piano must be taught by reducing considerably the difficulties of training and by lessening by at least two thirds the average time of study.

In order to achieve this, a very special method of instruction must be created, allowing everyone to develop his own faculties. The time must come to an end in which the nervous are given exercises which only aggravate their suffering. In matters of musical teaching we are still at the stage preceding the stage coach. It appears to me like a journey to be undertaken—let us say from Brussels to Paris—by people who, when walking, have to make the same movements (identically long steps, even breaths at the same time). How many of these will arrive at their aim? The percentage would certainly be as small as that of the pianists; only those who would be lucky enough to find themselves unhampered in their natural habits would arrive, the others would remain en route.

Is it not the same with our musicians?

I sum up by saying that the piano will never die. There will always be courageous people who will study it seriously, no matter how difficult it may be. There will always be in the world men and women who want to express their sorrows, joys, all the sentiments common to mankind, in sound, making use of their

faithful friend, the piano. The good old family piano on whose keyboard the little hands have been placed to play the first notes and on which are still placed, stealthily, old hands trying to recall the airs of yore.

If the piano cannot disappear, and it is a joy for us to know that it cannot, it remains nevertheless true that it does not occupy the place it deserves. Everyone should be able to enjoy its charm and for this reason we are demanding a method of instruction which can be better understood and more easily adapted to modern life.

Before making musical instruction obligatory professors must be formed and above all a scientifically musical and rational musical instruction must be made accessible to all. This alone can give an era of prosperity to the piano which it has hitherto not known and which it deserves.

If certain professors find these remarks rather hard about teaching, let them think for a moment of eighty per cent of the pupils lost to them and to the art of playing, and of the latter, if some believe that one cannot hope to make many pianists, I advise them to look at the sports of pre-war days and those of to-day. A good method and a little training has sufficed for that.

I am not alone of this opinion, others have had the same ideas before me. I mention with pleasure Mr. Thiberge, a blind Frenchman, who has worked for twenty-five years at a method based on new principles, which has been tried out and has produced marvellous results.

# IS IT POSSIBLE FOR THE BLIND TO PRODUCE SCULPTURE ?

By BERTHOLD ORDNER \*, Vienna.

After hearing a lecture for the blind over the radio the idea of interesting myself in the creation of plastic art came to me. I will endeavor to reply to the above query but I think that the reply will not be found faultless, moreover I am blind myself and can only consider the problem from my point of view.

Four years ago I was overcome by blindness and at first I was naturally overwhelmed. Despair, however, could not meet the difficulty. Through self-control I became accustomed to my suffering, but to regain my equilibrium I had to find a congenial occupation which would help me to prevail over my fate for at least a few hours a day, as such a condition is almost unbearable without occupation.

Paradoxical as it may seem, I must admit that sculpture has given me more than I hoped; I can only consider plastic art. The touch and remembrance of things he has formerly seen are the most important aids to a blind person. Naturally one cannot rush into big

creations nor can one compete with sculptors of note. My aim, however, is attained if one can kill several hours a day and interest a spectator in one's work. Expe-



\* Blind.







rience has demonstrated that this work does not appear to be the work of the blind as one can judge by photographs. A blind person is usually imagined to be awkward and without energy but as a matter of fact there have always been blind who, in the domain of intellect, have produced noted work, which proves that conception to be unjustifiable. I even believe that a blind man is not so easily deterred from his work and therefore applies himself more tensely than a sighted person. This application too results from the fact that a blind person encounters much more difficulty in producing his creation than a sighted one. The latter has only to throw a glance at his work to see its actual state, whereas a blind man can become conscious of it only after extensive groping, this explains the great attention which a sightless person devotes to his work.

I will now discuss my studio. Plastic art was the source of great joy to me when I could see and I have retained that interest in my present state. When I realized that my condition demanded distraction I obviously chose the domain which had formerly attracted me so much. After innumerable trials with different materials I decided to work with brass wire and I will endeavor to describe the technique of my work. I use brass wire of various thicknesses for my work and my only tool is a wire-cutter and pincers. Before attempting to create a work of art it has to be well thought out in my mind, then I can produce the picture which is with me. I begin with a sketch. The wire represents to me what the pencil line does to the designer. I first form the outlines which give me the thickness and size. The

rough draft, as in designing, forms the base from which to model the object. A correct rough draft is as important to me as to a designer for the success of the work in hand. This sketch once correct, I work to get the exact dimensions of width, this is done at first in big lines. Then I form the muscles, joints and other details. When this is accomplished I turn to the action of the work. Flexible material is very favorable for that. When I speak of action you will understand what I mean if you observe the statue of St. George. There you see the horse rearing with fear; the dragon stabbed by the lance, falls backward to the earth. I want my figures to present the maximum of what they are intended to present. When I think that my Don Quixote, fearful and timid from birth, has to stand on a ball with his horse, you can see what I expect of my figures. My Joan of Arc is not merely marching, she has to inspire her troops for the combat with raised sword and waving flag. In a word, a speeding automobile is not enough for me—it has to be emphasized by a flock of geese which are scattering on all sides.

I would like to draw attention to one great advantage of my works. It is very pure which modelling in plaster and clay is not; my method is cheaper, metal costing little, it is also quicker than that of plaster and clay. Experience has taught me to begin to work at once with wire and thus save myself moulding with all its disadvantages.

On finishing my subject I mount it either on a ball or pedestal and the work can be taken to its destination.

As the pleasure of creating with metal wire does not lessen, my tech-



nique goes on developing and this has resulted in my using more than one sort of wire. In the model "Donkey with Carriage" I have combined two, iron and brass wire. In this way the observer finds a variety of color. In the work "Palm-tree with Crocodile", which has been purchased by the Berlin Museum of the Blind, there are three different shades; iron, brass and copper wire, which exacts more work but which also augments the charm for the spectator. It is obvious that when one is deep in a creation new ideas come with new work and a very sensible progress in the choice of subject-matter can be observed in my following works. My "Dancer" is combined with coral and I add stones to the wire making the creations more interesting in this way. I have furthermore used mother-of-pearl, ivory and glass. The pedestal is not merely a simple brown socle of wood—I have also found new material for that—and in my "Bird of Paradise" you will see a socle of colored marble. My "Siegfried with the Dragon", which is at the Valentin Haüy Museum in Paris, is on a superb ebony pedestal. All the new materials can be seen combined in one of my last works. The group represents a sled harnessed to a stag mounted on ebony. The stag is worked in different thicknesses of wire, while on the sled is a big glass bowl. I imagined this object with a practical purpose. In this way I pass with a never-lessening eagerness and joy to increasingly complicated new productions.

My work was not acknowledged by the majority of the public which is explained by its novelty, but I did not despair of getting their interest in my creations. The first signs of attention were manifested

when a big art collector dared to choose twenty-seven of my productions to exhibit to the public in his gallery.

I have recounted all this so that my comrades in misfortune can imagine approximately the great enthusiasm with which I seize an opportunity to present my work to the public and how I have regained the sense of my own value which I believed to be lost. I endeavor to become more and more independent and to be estimated at my true value. We blind can also compete with the sighted as there are many with eyes who do not see. For this reason I want to show what I see and what is passing in my mind.

From the foregoing you can imagine how much I am engrossed in this interesting work and the different adjustments connected therewith. Thanks to it I have created for myself a new world, although unreal, the one in which I live and in which my imagination has unlimited freedom. The greatest suffering lies in inactivity, and I reiterate that happiness and contentment can only be found in work. Sighted people should remember that they should not pity the blind but rather interest themselves in the possibility of providing them with occupation. The work of a blind man, who often sees more than a sighted one, is in most cases quite as valuable and prejudice is unwarranted.

I hope that I have succeeded in giving you an approximate picture of the course of my work. I particularly hope that some of my blind readers will profit by my article as I, on my part, was led to my work through the radio lecture. Doubtless this method of work can be improved upon, my accomplishments must only count as spurs to better work of greater

value, and if I have succeeded in enriching the blind in this way I shall have attained my aim. I shall be glad to give further information to any readers interested in my work—I have in mind particularly teachers of the blind. I

shall be happy if this short account has interested my readers, especially my friends in misfortune and I end with the wish that work, whatever it may be, may help all the blind to overcome the darkness of their days.

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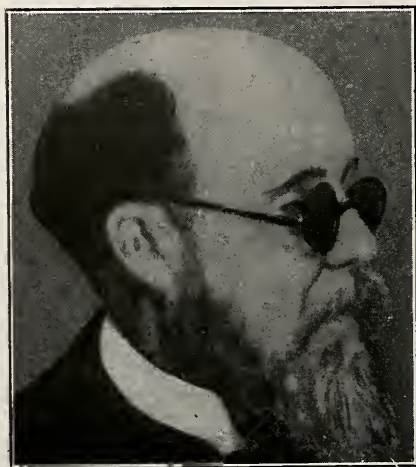
## PIERRE VILLEY

By MAURICE CINTRAT\*, Paris.

Mr. Pierre Villey, Professor at the University of Caen, died on October 24th. of a fractured skull, resulting from a railway accident which he survived only a few hours. Mrs. Villey, who accompanied him, is seriously injured; it is to be hoped that she will recover and that four sons, still in adolescence, will not be deprived of both parents. Mr. Villey was coming to Paris solely on business at the Association Valentin Haüy, of which he was Secretary General.

Son of Mr. Edmond Villey, professor of Political Economy and Dean of the Law School at Caen, Mr. Pierre Villey was born in that town on October 15th. 1879 and became blind at four years of age. He began his studies at the high school of Caen where, with one of his brothers, he passed through six classes. At thirteen he was sent as boarder to the National Institute for Young Blind People where he learnt Braille. He nevertheless continued his higher education, following a course at the college Louis-le-Grand, where he was in the class of rhetoric in 1899-1900. He was

prize winner several times in competitive examinations; from 1896 to 1899 he received in these difficult tests prizes and honorable mentions in Latin, Greek and English and a first prize in French composition. In 1900 he was first at the Ecole Normale Supérieure of Paris and in 1904 he received a fellowship; the same year he was admitted to the Thiers Foundation, proof of



\* Blind.

PIERRE VILLEY

his personal merit, and for four years Mr. Villey carried on his work there while preparing his thesis on "The Origins and Evolution of Montaigne's Essays" on which he lectured brilliantly in May 1908. Appointed to the Faculty of Literature at Clermont, Mr. Pierre Villey, the first blind man to attain the higher teaching profession, lectured there until 1910, when he was sent to the University of Caen. There he carried on his prodigious activity as professor, man of letters and specialist in matters pertaining to the blind until October 24th. of this year, when his tragic death brought a premature end to his career.

The enumeration of Mr. Pierre Villey's literary works would in itself suffice to show their type and importance; intended more for specialists than for the general public, there is no need to mention the names. A true historian of Montaigne, Mr. Pierre Villey produced works of great value especially on Ronsard, Marot, and Rabelais. Besides these scholarly works, and not mentioning his numerous articles on the blind, Mr. Villey wrote four books on the blind, in which his profound knowledge of this complex problem of blindness is portrayed: "The World of the Blind", a psychological essay; "The Instruction of the Blind"; "The Blind in the World of the Seeing", a sociological essay; "Maurice de la Sizeranne, Founder of the Association Valentin Haüy."

On several occasions the French Academy awarded prizes for literature to Mr. Villey, and in this respect we would like to quote the words of Mr. René Doumic, Permanent Secretary to the Academy, at the General Assembly, when announcing the prize awards:

"The Jean Rainaux Prize has

been awarded to a perfect humanist, to Mr. Pierre Villey, professor of literature at Caen. In a first book Mr. Villey, historian of Montaigne, really recognized all the Greek, Latin, Italian and French writers which the great reader had studied, all the origins of the Essays and followed their influence over our literature. In his "Great Writers of the 16th. Century" he applies the same method to Marot and Rabelais. The task appears enormous to you and, Gentlemen, I have not yet mentioned a condition which, in the face of such labor seems almost incredible, Mr. Villey has been blind since early childhood. His minute research work which implies the handling of thousands of books, the inspection of innumerable text books, was accomplished by Mr. Villey without the aid of his eyes. Picture to yourselves the apostolate which he fills among his blind brothers, never ceasing to repeat to them that they are not separated from the community of men, that they are not limited, that no domain of spiritual activity is beyond them if the heart is right. I am certain, Gentlemen, that I am your true interpreter when I assure Mr. Villey that, to the distinction which you have awarded him, you have added your esteem for the scholar but also all your respectful admiration for the man who, during every moment of his daily work, demonstrates a brilliant victory of the will over nature".

In 1925 on the occasion of a promotion in honor of the poet Ronsard, the Government nominated Mr. Villey Chevalier of the Legion of Honor; in 1933 at the four hundredth anniversary of Montaigne's birth Mr. Villey was promoted to the rank of Officer of the Order. We believe that it is the first time

that a man blind from childhood has been the recipient of the rosette of Officer of the Legion of Honor.

Mr. René Doumic's eulogy on Mr. Villey's activities in matters pertaining to the blind cannot exempt us from speaking of his work for the blind. When Mr. Maurice de la Sizeranne retired for a well-deserved rest, he could not have completed his work of Founder of the Association Valentin Haüy more perfectly than he did in having Mr. Villey appointed Secretary General in his place. He placed his open mind and goodwill at the disposal of the Association Valentin Haüy and, with the aid of his charming eloquence, triumphed over certain routine or resistance. With a natural simplicity he was within reach of everyone and one could have imagined that he tried in some way to apologize for his personal superiority. He modestly concealed certain facts; for instance it was only by chance in a friendly conversation that he mentioned that during his studies he gave lessons to pay his secretarial expenses as he did not wish to be dependent on his family. This idea of the dignity of a blind man inspired his activity in matters of the blind. With Mr. Jean-Jacques Monnier of Geneva he founded the International Association of Blind Students. One must however not think that he

reserved his solicitude for the blind to those aspiring to intellectual occupation. He supported and even gave his personal co-operation to certain enterprises with a view to forming new occupations for the blind, outside the intellectual field. As Member of the Special Council of the Ministry of Health he worked for the protection of the blind within the State.

Mr. Villey was in contact with numerous blind and others connected with affairs concerning the blind in foreign countries by whom he was held in great esteem. As French delegate to the World Conference in New York in 1931, Mr. Villey, according to the opinion of several members from other countries, was one of the most popular personalities there.

This is but a brief sketch of the life of a great man deprived of sight who, let us repeat, met his death coming to Paris in the cause of his brothers in misfortune, which makes his end more touching and surrounds it with a certain halo.

Deeply moved by his death, all those who knew him in any sort of capacity have a part in the grief of his family and are profoundly aware of the void caused by his decease; they will keep with them a living memory of him, some of friendship and admiration and many among them of gratitude.

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# “WHAT THE WAR BLIND SEE IN THEIR WAKING HOURS”

By PIERRE VILLEY \*

Professor at the University of Caen.

I call to mind the statement of our preceding article : in dreams, after fifteen years' blindness, the war blind continue to see as they did formerly. At least all those who replied to our enquiry maintained that they continued to see ; they nearly all added that their pictures are perfectly clear and colorful.

And when awake ? It is particularly then that a rich inheritance of clear pictures would be consoling, it is then especially that their inner life would be beautified and their regrets mollified.

When awake, the situation is unfortunately very different from that in a dream. Fifty per cent maintain that they enjoy complete pictures after fifteen years, the others declare that their pictures have become very much lessened either in frequency or in distinctness, above all in color. The diminution is in many cases already very advanced.

Many call attention themselves to this contrast which strikes them between the two sorts of pictures.

They are surprised at it: why should one see so clearly in the night when in the day the thought is clouded with darkness?

Doubtless it is because in a dream most of the mental faculties being more or less soundly asleep, the memory can, without any other force interfering with its course, call up souvenirs of the past.

When awake, on the contrary, the spirit of criticism has free play and if it decides to check visual pictures called up by the imagination, their falseness runs the risk of being thrown aside. On this point I have a very interesting testimony from a war-blinded Mr A... who was trained in the precision of scientific discipline. He is a high school alumnus and a university professor of mathematics. He also at the beginning of his blindness had plenty of visual pictures. You will see why he became disgusted with them.

“ I became accustomed to picture to myself in a certain way familiar spots. I end by not knowing whether they have been described as such to me or whether the picture is due to myself alone, and often I find that I am very much mis-

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\* Blind.



taken. I have in mind for instance, that a bridge is at a certain place and one fine day when I mention this bridge, no one understands—and for a good reason. At the beginning of my blindness I always imagined the looks of the people I met, by their voice or their handshake. The picture was always wrong. Now I think I have almost given up these visual pictures and I am content with a far more important auditory souvenir. This change of method (which was moreover unconscious and gradual) doubtless derives from the same gross mistakes made formerly. For instance, I imagined M... (one of our mutual friends) clean-shaven. I must say that in this special case I was quickly undeceived. I certainly believe that the habit of seeing is rapidly diminishing in my case. When I became blind I could not think of a person or object without picturing them to myself, even if I knew nothing about them, and the imagination was nearly always wrong. Now the person or thing exists without being accompanied by a visual picture”.

By dint of proving colors, which ones imagines, to be wrong one becomes uninterested in color; one slips unconsciously from a space of color to a colorless place. A...’s case is instructive, not only because he is clear-sightedly analytical, but because his dreams have remained clear and colored. He proves that while preserving the faculty of imaginary sight intact, one ceases to use it in daily life because one loses one’s interest in it. This indifference may result not only from the critical mind condemning pictures, but merely because new habits are acquired and give a different aspect to psychical life.

But from a psychological point of view it is interesting to bring to the fore, that aside from these subjects there are others who retain to an incredible degree the faculty of seeing in the darkness and who, completely blind, appear to enjoy to the end the inner life of the sighted.

The wonder is that with these stagnant souvenirs, with these pictures which memory has preserved, there are some blind who create a world of variable, constantly renewed fancies, which gives them the impression of living the life of the sighted. The war-blinded C... who lost his sight at thirty-four years of age, as the result of an explosion, writes to me at forty-eight:

“All my acts and least gestures are displayed in a distinct setting if I am in a place which I have seen before; if I am in an unknown spot they are very clear although produced by the imagination... In reading, as in conversation, events unfold in the picture described by the author or in the picture which I imagine if there be no description. In the same way during a conversation—I see people who are speaking to me or who are taking part in a general conversation; I see their gestures and the expression on their faces. It is the same at the theater where, if the acting be good, I imagine the scenery and actors perfectly and I lend them attitudes which make the piece seem real to me. Briefly, I have kept all the pictures which were impressed on my mind when I could see, just as a reflection, they immediately apply to each particular case in every act in one’s life... I cannot think of an object without giving it shape and color. If it be an object seen formerly it is colored just as I saw it—if I have not seen it, then I picture

it to myself of one or several colors, frequently of one only if it be a small object and it is difficult for me to change the color of the picture once I have imagined it. In pre-war days all the motor buses in Paris were painted a pale yellow color. Although I know that for a long time every line had its particular color, I cannot see one of these buses other than yellow. I have a carpet which was blue when I saw it, when we received it. After some time—at least seven or eight years ago—a reply to some question told me that it was dark red. Try as I will, if I do not concentrate on the color of dark red, this carpet on which I step every day remains for me the beautiful blue of Smyrna carpets”.

A blind man of this description, who sees the carpet on which he walks in his room, the wall-paper, the color and design of the curtains, enjoys just as do the sighted the appearance of each room in his house. He takes great pains in choosing his furniture.

So much for objects. The creation of faces seems to present a much greater difficulty. Here is the testimony of one of my correspondents on the subject, a war blind Mr E... who took up his duties again as teacher after the war:

“If the person who speaks to me was known by me before my blindness, I see him just as I knew him fifteen years ago... As for people whom I have never seen, I immediately create a complete picture of them: size, posture, physiognomy, exact details of features, coloring, hair, beard and expression. All that is released at once by the voice of the person if the voice has a clear tone. If I hear the voice in a whisper or it is indistinct by reason of distance or through some

obstacle forming a screen, the picture of the person is indistinct. It will become clearer and will be modified when the voice becomes clear. “The same vagueness occurs when two people with the same tone of voice speak to me in the same conversation; it is only with difficulty that I can get a distinct picture of them. In my imagination of people I am largely guided by my former association of persons with their voices: if a man speaks to me and has a voice like someone I formerly heard and saw, I imagine him very much like that person, there is however enough difference to cause no confusion in my imagination. Moreover everyone whom I frequent, whether they be old acquaintances or new-comers into my life, have their own particular faces, always the same. If later I hear that my picture of them is wrong in some detail, it is difficult for me to modify it, the picture becomes cloudy and I experience a certain difficulty in calling it up”.

The relative stability of these mental portraits is curious:

“My wife”, continues Mr. D... was twenty-seven when I left her to go to war. I always see her with her face of twenty-seven years and I cannot imagine her older”.

On the contrary when tactile or auditory signs warn of change, as for instance the change in a voice, then modification intervenes automatically. “My children were three years and one year respectively when I left, yet contrariwise I only see them with the faces of youths, two or three years younger perhaps than they are in reality”.

Some blind people aver that they are able to create mental photograph albums of tremendous variety. Here is the testimony of a

customs officer, Mr. Salwey who has been blind for twenty years.

"The last human face whose picture remained impressed on my eye was that of the nurse who was in attendance on me in the clinic at Chaux-de-Fonds, in December 1908... New faces which I have met since have automatically printed a picture in my mind which remains individual and definite... After my stay at the Swiss clinic, where I left my last glimmer of hope, I spent several months in military hospital at Val de Grâce. I was then in the midst of new faces: doctors, male and female attendants, comrades under treatment, all were unknown to me... As I review that time, since which twenty years have already passed, I recall to mind faces which however my eyes have never been able to see and yet are as clear to me as the names belonging to them. Back in the bosom of my country, I found once more faces I knew. Then the war began and for fifty months my village situated in occupied territory was flooded with Germans. How many officers and soldiers followed upon one another in the course of that unforgettable captivity heaven only knows. Living in close promiscuousness with these undesirable guests, of whom the greater part showed genuine interest in me and often even sympathy, I ended by knowing personally a great number; at least a hundred belonging to all classes and as I have the memory of extraordinarily faithful people, I remember nearly all by name and with the features as I had registered them in my mind. Finally transporting my goods to Strassburg as soon as armistice was signed, I have lived for ten years in the midst of people of whom not one face was known to me. Never-

theless each of the many people I know there to-day possesses in my imagination its own particular face; it would not make any difference if I had arrived here seeing and had become blind yesterday".

Mr. Salwey concludes with this sentence, which I imagine will set you thinking: "Yet the sighted still persist in believing that the most painful privation of the blind is to see no longer faces of loved ones".

It is not a simple matter to say how the imagination works in its bold constructions. It is a capricious, fanciful ability which hardly reveals its secrets; all the subjects agree that they retain blurred associations through which they build up new pictures.

The former customs officer whom we have seen rich with such a beautiful collection of photographs, expresses his views on this subject as follows: "Information which I can pick up in my surroundings act as foundation to the picture and imagination does the rest. When I have no data, imagination does it all without any more effort or fatigue. Numerous conscious and unconscious elements, and among the last named the social standing of the subject, his age and particularly his voice, contribute to these mental autophotographs. For instance, I am inclined to attribute to pleasant voices faces equally pleasant and vice versa".

Another blind man declares that although he immediately imagined the face of everyone who spoke his own language, he lost this power of imagination if the language spoken were foreign, or even if the words were sung. The cause of this is obvious: in these cases spontaneous associations play no rôle. He relates further that, having followed for a long time lectures of an orator



over the radio, he had built up in mind a very certain, detailed picture of the speaker. When he met him personally and heard his voice without the means of a radio apparatus, the picture proved to be wrong and another took the place of the first. In both of these cases the sound of the voice appeared with different intonations therefore different associations would appear.

The study of the question can be handled with least difficulty in constructing landscapes, less sudden yet more laborious. The questionnaire which I sent to blind soldiers asked the following question: "When you wander in a spot unknown to you, do you want your guide to give you an exact detailed description of this place?"

I maintain that if you lead a blind man to a beautiful spot you would do your utmost to give him a long, minute description of it. You would be convinced that in this way, and only in this way, you would furnish him the means of enjoying it in the small measure of which he is capable. You do not doubt that the more exact and detailed your description the more grateful your blind auditor should be to you. Well, you are mistaken. Nearly all my witnesses declare that they want very few details. They would like someone to create a contact between them and their surroundings in a few words. Afterwards their imagination wants to play freely on those details. Its flight is retarded when too many exact details are given to insert into its construction. Especially the blind like to take possession of their milieu by themselves as far as possible, by their touch, smell, principally by their hearing. Those senses call up imagination in a way very different to that of words.

However poor and contemptible the impression of a landscape through those senses may seem to a sighted person, it is nevertheless that which stimulates the imagination.

The teacher D... writes: "When I arrive in an unknown place, either in town or country, I ask for some general information about the landscape or the street; then I immediately fancy a picture of the place, but I never ask for details which force me nearly always to modify the picture I have built up. I am disturbed and even somewhat confused... I am more at ease with a picture which I have imagined than with one laboriously detailed, thanks to the assistance of someone else's eyes".

And the soldier M... "This assistance to be really helpful must remain rather discreet and give me the feeling that I am seeing by myself and not through the eyes of others. A few words expressing admiration or repulsion without being too descriptive, are usually enough for my imagination to see what my eyes had formerly seen and which my other senses help me more to discover to-day".

Yet another soldier V... who has lived in South America as a missionary: "I put very few questions and build up for myself a picture of the landscape with the remembrance of landscapes which I have formerly known and which various sounds recall to me; larks or swallows in the air, and in the trees or on growing corn; innumerable noises of shafts of a neighboring mine (the mines of Aniche) which call up so naturally the pictures of my youth in the district of Carmaux, sirens of a tow-boat on the Scarpe which bring back landscapes which made an impression on me on the Parana and on the Paraguay".



We hardly dare hope to solve the mystery of these creations, but we can testify to their power of evocation. Some of them assert that they enjoy these scenes, recalled or even created by themselves, exactly as they would scenes immediately in front of their eyes. Let us return once again to the testimony of the customs officer Salwey:

"I like to go on trips and even make ascents which I used to love, and when I arrive for instance at the summit of the Donon or Hoenneck, I spend enchanting moments contemplating in thought the panorama which is spread out before me. From our balcony (in Strassburg) one can see the Cathedral on the right, the Black Forest on the left. More than once Louis has depicted the imposing sight of the high, openwork spire standing out black against a sky fiery from a setting sun. He has depicted the Black Forest in like manner, sometimes its treetops covered with snow emerge from wintry mists or they appear like blue and motionless waves through the light haze of the morning. That is why I sometimes find myself admiring all alone the sunset behind the Cathedral, or, in the glory of early-morning light, the distant silhouette of the Black Forest... If I am favored with a corner seat in a railway carriage, I like to look in imagination at the landscapes following one another framed by the window, and as they are similar to the usual countries through which one travels, what I see is perhaps not very different from reality. I could never imagine this frame empty unless night filled it with darkness".

It is significant that invented pictures and pictures recalled make no difference to the mind of our witness. What is still better, he

cannot make a difference. They possess the same richness, same precision, the same intensity of color. The parties concerned make the statement themselves:

"I confess that it would be very difficult for me to distinguish between what I have seen and what I have not seen". With regard to people: "When I recall the souvenir of an old acquaintance, sometimes I have to think hard, by comparing dates, whether I have seen that person with my eyes or through the imagination". And another the soldier M... "Nothing distinguishes new from old pictures in my mind. They are exactly as if they had been seen by my eyes". Those are confessions which show the power of these imperative creations.

A third feature which is also striking is that of inner pictures which, vain as they may be, tend in certain cases to keep alert in the subject action which the sighted person possesses, the physiological support of vision if I may call it so, sometimes also gestures which go with it. Here again is the testimony of the soldier M... which is corroborated by several analogous declarations: "I have kept the habit of looking in front of me, and if my attention is called to the right, left, or back of me, I instinctively turn my head, or if I check this gesture, I feel that I want to make it in order to *see better*". Do not interpret these movements as muscular contractions which, deprived of objective, would continue to act mechanically in the void merely through acquired habit. They continue to be the support of the mental effort of sight which is not destroyed.

What is to be said also of those who maintain that when they read Braille text with their fingers they

follow it inwardly with their eyes, some in black, others in Braille and declare that when they begin to tire of reading they feel it in their eyes? In one subject fatigue went as far as to make the eyes water.

It is not the place to ask us to what extent illusion has played a part in some of the foregoing testimonies. We are here in the domain of imagination where illusion is a creative factor. It is certain that a passionate nostalgia, a deep desire to remain as close as possible to the sighted in their mentality, has been the most effective stimulus to the imagination of some of our witnesses.

Those subjects who possess an inner vision refuse to be called blind. The blindness which they experience is so different from the blindness which they had imagined, from that which they have known formerly in those blind from birth, that they do not recognize it in themselves. At the most they are sightless, sighted people who have ceased to see, but not blind. Many of the war blind declare that they do not feel blind—they do not exist in darkness.

"Visual pictures", says M... "pass ceaselessly before my eyes, which I do not seem to have lost".

B... often paints aquarelles in imagination and he maintains that in his blindness he sees as he did.

Also L... "In imagination I am never in the dark".

And E... "I have never felt completely in the dark, because an uninterrupted film unfolds before my sight... When I work I cannot get the impression that my eyelids are closed. I seem to be looking at what I do just as if it were necessary to see it.

Again D... "I can sum up all the foregoing by saying that I am not

an entirely blind man. I am a sighted person who has ceased to see, but who has kept the mental faculties and habits of a sighted person".

As a matter of fact, these favored cases which we have just stressed are found most often—not always—in subjects who have been excellent visualizers. One of them M... often mentioned above, says that he was one of the ten crack shots of his regiment. Others had trained their sight through drawing or painting. And C... whom we have seen so anxious about the color of his carpet and draperies, thinks that his employment as salesman in a decorator's business gave him special training in colors.

However, as I said, not always. Without speaking of different blind soldiers of whom I am without information on this point, I knew a doctor very intimately; he lost his sight after thirty-five years of age and never had any special visual training. After fifteen years of blindness he said to me: "As I talk to you I see the arrangement of my room as if I were not blind. I enjoy it as I did before. I should be ill at ease to live in an apartment if I had not chosen the furniture and wallpapers for it myself".

Many will doubtless continue for a long time—perhaps always, to keep this precious gift which they have been able to defend against the invasion of darkness. Many, not all. Out of forty blind who replied to us, about twenty as we have said, testify already to a very marked diminution of their pictures while awake. If they write to us again in a few years the proportion will be certainly greater. It will however augment less quickly than in the cases of the civilian blind, many of whom lost their

sight after long periods of sickness, or their sight has gradually weakened. But even among those who have ceased to see in their dreams, whose memories even in the passiveness of sleep do not call up colored pictures any more, some of them will continue to create visual pictures constantly in the psychic activity of their waking hours. A great number of testimonies of civilian blind prove it, among which I will limit myself to writing of one which is decisive. It comes from a blind man who lost his sight at the age of ten and who is to-day over sixty: "I continued to see clearly in my dreams until I was about twenty. Since then, pictures have diminished in number and clarity, so much so that I now dream as a blind man. However occasionally I see vaguely in my dreams, things and people, especially people, but they are always very indistinct as if surrounded by night. In this way a clairvoyant sees an indistinct form which moves in the thick shade of darkness. In dreams, conversation or reading, everything changes: visual pictures appear again in mind as soon as they are recalled, and are very clear, without being in any way modified or lessened. Visuals souvenirs have remained very vivid and the things I saw in childhood help me to picture things which I have never seen. However this second category of pictures is not perhaps as deeply and faith-

fully impressed on my memory as those which my sight impressed on it. Those pictures remain clear in form and color. I can follow no matter what description, if it be well given, and I see as if I were sighted; in my thought, perspective, the appearance of the sky, transparency of atmosphere or water, puff of smoke, dark silhouettes of forests, trees in leaf and laden with fruit, or bare, meadows and shades of green foliage, flowers in bud and flowers fully open. As if sighted I see the whole, then the detail... To sum up, in sleep none or extremely few visual pictures; when awake everything resumes in my mind form and color".

Do not facts lead to a paradoxical result! So, at the present, the war blind who replied to our questionnaire, keep pictures intact in their dreams while a great number have only very dimmed ones in their waking hours. In twenty years it is probable that in many of the blind dream-pictures will have disappeared, but among them a number will still avail in practical life of very rich visual pictures. Besides, after forty or fifty year's blindness, their landmarks will have faded to a great extent. Will they themselves be quite sure of their testimony when they declare their pictures to be clear and colored? What does it matter however if they derive the same consoling strength from them.

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# STENOGRAPHERS AND TYPISTS

By B. HIRSCH,

Principal of the Berlin School for War Blind.

Some of the blind have taken up typewriting since its invention yet only isolated cases succeeded in keeping pace with sighted typists and in utilizing it as a career. Through the introduction of shorthand for the sighted the blind were much more handicapped in their struggle for this vocation. Even if here and there a blind person made practical use of typewriting, schools and institutions turned away from typewriting as a vocational instruction to save the blind from disappointment and to prevent the public from a wrong conception of the capabilities of the blind.

The typewriter most generally in use at that time was the « Blickensderfer », an American machine, which varied from the standardized systems but whose keyboard was very convenient for the German language. This system was used in the Imperial Institute of Steglitz. For us it was a question of facilitating the learning of such work as much as possible for the war-blind and to rouse their courage as quickly as possible, so we decided to adopt the machine recommended by institutions for the blind. Through a fortunate coincidence we were able to acquire the services of the representative of Blickens-

derfer typewriters, Mr. Georg Emig, to give instruction in our School.

After several war-blind had finished their training on this machine and had acquired unusual speed and sureness, the idea of turning the knowledge of various men to practical use was developed. In spite of the great interest which these mutilated had awakened in the general public, it was impossible, in view of the prejudice against the work of the blind, to find situations for them in private firms. When eight war-blind were perfectly trained in 1916 we invited a Berlin magistrate to visit our school. He was astounded at the accomplishment of the blind typists but expressed doubt about the legality of giving them positions. Nevertheless a few days later two blind typists were engaged by the Berlin municipality, and as the experiment was successful, trained typists were not kept waiting for situations.

The smaller machines which we used at first, such as « Blickensderfer », « Erika », « Kleine Adler », etc., were naturally inadequate for the business of a big office, so for those blind who were to take up typewriting as a vocation we changed to the « Continental » and « Ideal », to which were attach-



ed arrangements for helping the blind, invented by Mr. Emig.

1. A guide equipped with tactile keyboard and lever which, connected with a spring, propels the carriage to any desired place on a page, so the blind are enabled to do the most difficult work, columns, letterheads, signatures, with irreproachable sureness and speed.

2. Marking twelve of the keys with one or two little dots to give the blind the lay of the keyboard thus facilitating certainty and speed in writing.

3. A lever which indicates the end of the sheet by suddenly standing still.

4. An eraser attached to the tape carrier which enables the blind to erase any particular letter.

The last two devices are not always asked for and with careful training can be dispensed with, but the marked keys and tactile keyboard with spring lever are absolutely indispensable to a blind typist. The devices can be attached to most of the best-known office machines and the expense is extremely small. The production is in the hands of an expert mechanic Mr. Walter Oehmke, Luisenstr : 21, Berlin.

The difficulty which our students encountered using carbon paper for copies was met by the introduction of a simple board to regulate its insertions between the sheets.

To take dictation we had a typewriter built for dotted writing from an English pattern and the war-blind took dictation comparatively quickly in shorthand for the blind, but the reading of dotted writing caused difficulty as longer practice is necessary to read this writing fluently. For this reason every war-blind who acquired a position was provided with a dictophone so that he could transcribe

dictation with necessary speed. The dictophone is generally used by companies, while in private concerns knowledge of shorthand is essential. Our efforts were centered on creating a shorthand and a shorthand machine which would meet all requirements and be clear and noiseless.

The above-mentioned shorthand machine was constructed by the firm of Mix and Genest, later taken over by the German Telephone Co. of Berlin. The machine worked well but had some defects which, in spite of many efforts could not be altered, so that ten years ago the factory declared that it would cease their manufacture. We then found a mechanic. Mr. Arthur Busse, Berlin, who offered to construct an improved shorthand machine. His machine « Streif » worked with less noise and was lighter and easier to transport. Even if it did not meet the greatest demands, it was at the moment the most practical machine for taking dictation. Three years ago we communicated with the firm of Herde & Wendt, Berlin, who in 1911 constructed the « Picht » machine which was not practical enough for us. After thorough tests, applying our experience with other machines, some changes were found necessary and we finally obtained a machine which fully meets all our requirements.

During the first years we used the usual German shorthand for taking dictation, but we found that it was inadequate to fill our needs. We had therefore to devise a dotted shorthand which was easy to learn, easy to remember and easy to combine and decipher. After many attempts to use the existing shorthands, we found that they did not answer the purpose of commercial correspondence so we were obliged to create a new shorthand.

The system which is now being used came into being through practice and it has been constantly perfected. Our students now attain before leaving the school a speed of 120-150 syllables a minute which increases sensibly later through abbreviations which every stenographer makes for himself in each particular branch of business.

Professor AmseI, President of the German Association of Stenographers, declared after a visit to our school that having entered with scepticism he left it with a firm conviction that a blind stenographer trained by this method could reach absolute equality with his sighted colleagues. In spite of all we have attained we have always worked further on shorthand, eliminating old, adding new, always aiming to apply the results of our experience to improvement and simplification.

The teaching of shorthand begins with longhand, going over to brachygraphy and ending in stenography consisting of more than a thousand abbreviations. Those students who have known how to read and write dotted writing learn naturally to read more quickly than one who has become blind later—for these in most cases over a year is required to attain the speed necessary in business for taking dictation and transcribing. We devote several hours every week to typewriting, transcribing letters and documents from stenography so that the work which will be demanded later can be learnt practically at school.

Although at first the program of study was made difficult through circumstances, particular consideration had to be taken for the war-blind who were sent to us at various stages of recuperation, a definite program became a necessity, and with constant development became

a possibility without detracting from the individual attention given to each student. Experience has taught us that a normally clever blind person who during training has no material and physical cares requires a year for his training in stenography and typewriting. Besides typewriting and stenography instruction is also given in economics, bureaucracy, civics and geography.

Regarding the teaching of languages, we have, particularly among the war-blind, some students and teachers who have learnt English and French shorthand very quickly and who have been able to make use of this knowledge. English, French, Danish and Esperanto are in our curriculum to be taken by the students if they wish. The application of languages to the vocation of stenographer has been only possible when students have studied the language for a considerable time before.

To satisfy from the point of view of instruction, all the requirements of a commercial school, we have two certificated teachers and a certificated language teacher who gives instruction in economics, civics, typewriting, bureaucracy and languages.

No precise rule has been laid down so far as to the preparatory education and choice of our students.

The necessary qualities are only present in very few instances, but time has proved that they can often be attained in a relatively short time, so that a quick refusal would cost the applicant in question a position in life which now offers him advantages and contentment. The first condition is the knowledge of writing and German grammar; besides a fairly quick understanding, good health and power of resistance. Great weight is laid on agreeable

manners. Even if these are only exterior qualities they are particularly important to the blind, as they are noticed more than their sighted colleagues and their manners may appear unpleasant or ridiculous if they have habits of which they are unconscious and their attention is not drawn to them. If the blind do not wish to become an object of pity in spite of their accomplishments they must not differ in manners or dress from the sighted. In this respect little has been done for the blind and yet in many cases their well-being depends upon it. Sport and training in meeting and resorting with the world and people would be of infinite use to the blind.

The salaries of our blind shorthand-typists are the same in Berlin as those of the sighted, thanks to the department of the blind of the Agency for Mutilated. In the few cases where a trained student did not come up to expectation,

unforeseen sickness was generally the cause. After our long years of experience we are absolutely convinced that shorthand and type-writing is one of the vocations in which the blind can fully equal the sighted.

When the success of the war-blind was bruited abroad about ten years ago, civilian blind, both men and women, applied to us for instruction, so since its foundation in November 1914 until September 1932, the school has trained 200 blind as stenographers, among them:

102 war-blind and

98 civilian blind (56 men and 42 women).

The civilian blind who were in receipt of civic aid have been placed through the Agency for the Blind at the Welfare for the Infirm of the City of Berlin. All these blind have not only found a satisfying and lucrative activity but are in the position to live without the aid of charity.

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## EDITORIAL

Record libraries, sound books of all kinds continue to be the Promised Land which will provide new fields of entertainment and instruction to the blind. Unfortunately progress towards that goal seems exceedingly slow and the results, so far, excepting from the publicity standpoint, are not very satisfactory. The editor of this bulletin has been requested by some readers to pass upon the subject in an impartial way and these are his conclusions.

The thin, flexible or slow-playing records do not seem to have found among the public the success which their advertised advantages would lead one to believe. Either they were not durable enough or the quality or volume of sound they reproduced was deficient in some way. Unless these defects are reme-

died it seems difficult to envisage a much greater success with the blind, no matter how convincingly formulated are the arguments pro and con.

The process of photographic recording of sounds on films, ordinarily used to-day in the talking-film business, the accuracy of which is very great, has been used by different engineers for the establishment of phonographic machines.

The Nublat system, which consisted of first coating the surface of the film with a layer of magnetic substance, the varied thickness of which corresponded with the recorded sound frequency, uses to-day electromechanical engraving, effected by a minute graving tool on an opaque surface of varnish covering the film. Margerin and Bonneau



have also completed a process of electromechanical recording giving a phonogram of regular opacity, that is the sounds are transmitted to the film by a winding line bordering two narrow spaces, one of which is opaque and the other transparent.

Thirring and Richtera, Austrian engineers, have made films of paper printed by the "offset" process from a photo-sonorous recording.

Bussard, Link, Murlot, use the classical photographic recording with variable opacity through a rarefied gas lamp.

Huguenard, who first conceived a process of deep engraving into the thickness of the film, has just made an electromechanical recorder using an engraving plane which scrapes a portion of the film coated with opaque varnish.

All these methods of recording and others which would take too long to mention here have both advantages and disadvantages. Photographic inscriptions are perfect in quality but can only be effected by professionals. Inscriptions by means of electromechanical engraving can be done even by an amateur but their quality leaves much to be desired.

Reproducing machines, using the strips recorded by one or the other of these processes, all use to-day the photoelectric cell, connected with an amplifier and a loud-speaker.

The inventors of all these photoelectrical phonographs have endeavored to conciliate the following points : easy manipulation by amateurs without special training, maintenance accomplished entirely by a local current (continuous or alternate), a film presenting a long audition without being too cumbersome, exactness of reproducing sounds, insignificant wear of film, price of machine not exceeding a few hun-

dred dollars, price of films of standard type not exceeding a few cents a yard.

It can be stated to-day that these different problems have been successively solved and that the photoelectrical phonograph has become technically possible. However no such sort of machine has been put on the market commercially, and that out of purely economic grounds.

As a matter of fact the launching of such a business would necessitate the firm manufacturing the phonographs producing a sufficient number of films for the buyer of the machine to be certain of a filmotheque where he can acquire films to his taste, whatever they may be, without fear of the stock becoming exhausted. It is therefore necessary to produce a large number of films and every one of them should be reproduced in very large quantities so that the price of each copy be not prohibitive.

The total financing of a business for making photoelectrical phonographs and producing films for their use runs into millions. Up to the present no financing group has dared to run the risk, more especially as one would enter into an almost fatal conflict with the powerful industries of records, of editing and of printing.

We are therefore watching the advent of a new technique subjected to the ostracism of capital, eluding all industrial investments, which naturally present a certain amount of risk. That is, moreover, the usual case with technical progress in an era of disturbance and uncertainty. Inventions are ready but no one is willing to inject them into an economic cycle suffering from anaemia.

Yet the photoelectric phonograph is born.

# HEREDITARY BLINDNESS

BY CLYDE E. KEELER,

Section on Heredity, Howe Laboratory of Ophthalmology, Harvard Medical School.

In 1927 Dr Lucien Howe was awarded the Leslie Dana medal of the National Society for Prevention of Blindness for his unceasing efforts to force the adoption of silver nitrate laws by State Legislatures, and as a result of his efforts, combined with those of many others, Ophthalmia neonatorum has dropped from its former position as the most important cause of blindness in America to that of least importance in many communities. This means that literally thousands of persons now see who would otherwise have been doomed to walk in darkness.

From his fifty years of clinical experience Dr Howe was so convinced of the importance of heredity as a cause of blindness that when he presented to the Harvard Medical School funds for Research in Ophthalmology, he insisted that one of the three projects to which they should be devoted should be the study of hereditary factors affecting the eyes, with a view to eliminating blindness due to inheritance. And he realized that nothing could be done until a careful, painstaking survey of all the facts had been made.

Accordingly, the Howe Laboratory, through its Section on Heredity, is now endeavoring to collect and

analyze data upon heredity as a cause of blindness. We have invited all the Schools for the Blind in the United States and Canada to work with us by providing the raw data with which to begin our studies, and we have met with the heartiest co-operation from the more progressive schools of both countries.

We believe, as Dr Howe did, that before anything definite can be done in the direction of preventing hereditary blindness, we must have accurate, first-hand knowledge not only of the amount of blindness due to heredity, but also of the types of hereditary defects producing blindness in the present blind population. We must know what percentage of hereditary blindness is due to each of these types, and we must know just how each of these types is inherited. The only method by which this information can be obtained is through the detailed pedigree study of hundreds of actual cases.

We do not believe that it is fair to the blind of our land for us to use these facts publicly, to call undue attention to the grave situation which exists, or to allow our data to become tools for the misguided fanatics who continually besiege our

legislatures with proposals for class legislation, and often defeat admirable purposes by their fanaticism. We do believe, however, that when intelligent blind and their advisors have before them the available facts and realize how much visual handicap existing to-day has been caused directly by heredity, they will take matters into their own hands and organize to prevent the reproduction of blind children by members of their own group. For only the blind, themselves, can realize the true severity of their handicap. And to prevent the birth of sightless children it is neither necessary nor advisable to advocate abstention from matrimony—but merely voluntary sterilization prior to marriage.

Every blind person and every worker for the blind knows of cases in which there is a definite hereditary cause at work, and yet few realize how frequent such cases are—because of the difficulty of learning the whole truth about the average family history. Few schools for the blind have ever pried deeply into the matter of heredity, and many of them make record of it only when they find affected brothers and sisters in their own school. Yet, as far as our survey has progressed, it appears that between twenty and thirty per cent of the children now attending schools for the blind are there on account of heredity.

Let us merely cite a few examples of what we mean by hereditary blindness.

A certain blind man is now living in Missouri. Without studying his family history it is known that he has a blind sister, two blind nephews, and six blind cousins. It is also probable that his father, an uncle, an aunt, and one grandparent were blind. We know the biological law by which this blindness

was transmitted and may predict that this man could not help reproducing blind children if he married. He did marry, and six more sightless lives were added. Who is to blame? Had this man been sterilized, these six would not have groped in darkness. If it turns out that we are correct in our belief that this man's father, uncle and aunt were also blind, then had his grandparent been sterilized, the handicapped lives of nineteen persons would have been prevented.

A woman from Massachusetts suffered from congenital cataract. She married and had children. She was responsible for bringing into the world six blind children, nine blind grandchildren, and six blind great-grandchildren—in all, twenty-one blind descendants, some of them now attending schools for the blind in New England. All these could have been prevented had she been sterilized.

This year two blind persons were married in Louisiana. We are told that both husband and wife suffer from a type of hereditary blindness, but we have not learned the exact type of their defect. But, assuming it to be a dominant character, as are most eye defects, we may predict that three out of every four children which they have will be blind. In other words, the chances against each child are three that it will be blind to one that he will have good vision. Is it right to permit such marriages doomed to produce sightless children?

In our detailed survey of hereditary blindness no one can help us as much as the blind, themselves, and workers for the blind. They can help by giving us all the information they possess concerning their

own and other hereditary cases. We have already welcomed many letters from blind persons volunteering information concerning their own cases. The letters from social workers have been equally helpful.

And some day our survey task will be completed. What then? We shall publish our survey, simply but in detail. We shall describe particular cases, but we shall not publish the names of any blind persons. We shall place copies of this survey in the libraries of Schools for the Blind and Associations for the Blind in the United States and Canada. Then, aside from an advisory capacity which we shall gladly assume, the task of the Howe Laboratory will be completed.

It will then be time for the intelligent blind and their co-workers, armed with the facts which we have provided, to take matters in hand. It will then be time for

them to urge that no student having a type of hereditary blindness graduate from a school for the blind without knowing the danger of transmitting his particular type of blindness, should he marry. It will then be time, too, for the blind to urge that a Hereditary Day be observed in every School for the Blind in America, upon which day the teacher of biology will explain to the older students the mechanism of heredity, with special reference to the inheritance of blindness. It will then be time for the blind to advocate that no member of their group suffering from a type of hereditary blindness shall marry unless he has previously presented himself for voluntary sterilization.

But it is now high time for the blind to be thinking about this serious problem and the opportunity which they have for preventing hereditary blindness.

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# THE WRITING OF THE BLIND

By ELSIE F. SLADE, London, England

Lack of eyesight does not only close the most important doors of sensate discernment but also denies to the blind the unlimited, independent progress through reading, as well as intellectual association with the world everywhere, where the ear cannot suffice and can only offer as substitute the use of writing. In spite of untold failures both blind and sighted rival in the production of practical ways to make possible writing and reading of printed matter by those deprived of sight.

The whole world is familiar with the name of the Frenchman, Louis Braille, through whose devotion the blind are able to read and write — if not as quickly as the sighted at least fluently enough to educate themselves in the broadest sense of the word. They are able to carry on professions, such as that of music, involving constant reading, and to find diversion in their leisure hours, which the blind require more than anyone else.

The history of writing of the blind comprises an era of more than three hundred years. The earliest information on the subject reaches back to the time of the Spanish Conquest of Peru. They found — according to Sibley's account — in big, rough but massively made chests, masses

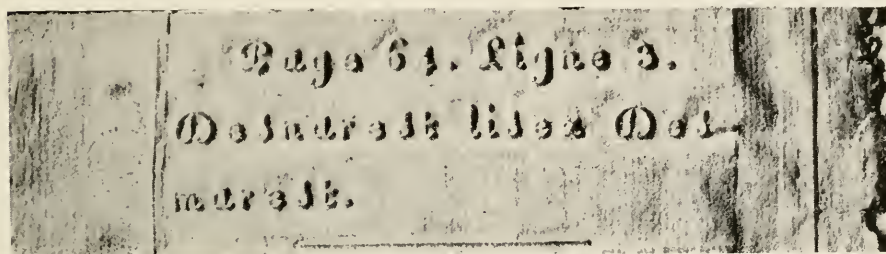
of woollen string of different colors, breadths and lengths. The long strings were tied to short ones and to each one were looped knots of different form and size. The color of the string, its size, the number and distance separating the knots, were all significant. The system was known as Quippos. The Quippos system is not for lengthy consideration here. It serves our purpose just to state that the blind Peruvians at that time were able to read just as the sighted of their race. The embossed carving in wood of Ramapazetto in Rome (1575) and of Lucas in Madrid (1580) served the purpose of reading and were the first attempts in Europe to make a tactile reproduction of our writing for the blind.

Georg Harsdörffer, Nürnberg 1651, describes a method whereby through a wax-covered tablet the blind, "all by means of stylus-engraved letters will be able to recognize, name and copy them, and in time will learn to read such writing done on wax", yet he gave no example of its practical use. The wax tablet and stylus are therefore the first means of instruction recommended in the first half of the seventeenth century. But a few decades later, the genius of a teacher

and the talent of his blind pupil raised the instruction of reading to such a point that it was not equalled in the next hundred years. Jacob Bernouilli taught Elizabeth Waldkirch to write, in Geneva in 1676, by making her feel the lines of letters deeply carved in wood and by making her trace them with a pencil. Bernouilli was so successful with Waldkirch, that in four years

letters of medium size, with printer's ink, set up by herself.

In France it was Mademoiselle de Salignac who almost at the same time found a way to write. She pinned letters to a piece of paper which was stretched over a frame, across which two parallel and moveable metal plates ran; the tactile letters appeared at the back of the sheet of paper. Klein reports that



Haüy type.

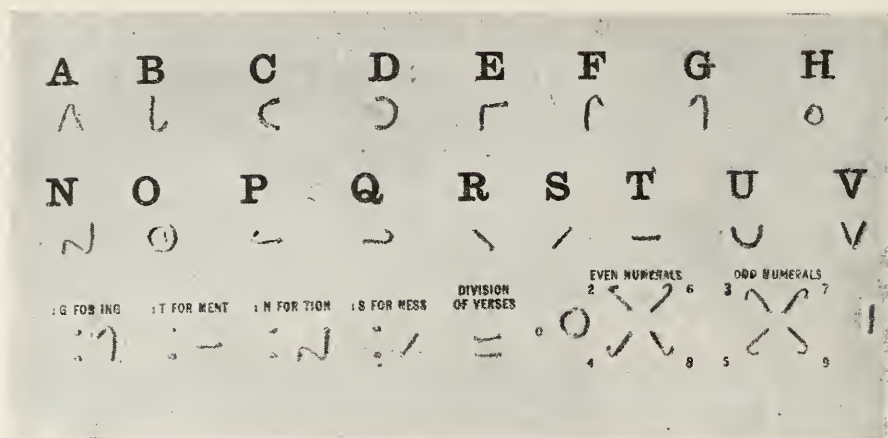
she could write German, French and Latin letters to her friends.

Other blind caught Quippos' idea again. The blind musician, Vionville discovered the knot or thread writing and taught his blind friend, with whom he kept up an animated correspondence in this way. Dufau reports that two young blind men in an Institution in Edinburgh made a similar discovery later.

In the second half of the 18th. century ways were thought out which led to the establishment of a writing for the blind. Maria Theresia von Paradis used Pestalozzi's idea with capital letters (in relief) and presented words and phrases with the help of an arrangement resembling our reading machines of to-day. Mechanics of Kempelen made a hand-printing machine for her with which Paradis printed in

Salignac wrote with pencil and guide and whoever wrote to her had to prick the letters with a pin.

The greatest difficulties were encountered to find a way to write with ink and other liquids. As the blind never know if the pen still contains ink they were given fountain pens invented by Müller, Renaux, Pingeron and others but the cleverest blind writer could not always avoid smudging the writing with the left hand following. Already in Haüy's time it was considered a drawback that the blind could only make a one-sided use of writing and Haüy himself objected to this. So we see that for the purpose of realizing a writing in relief, besides the writing with a stylus over a soft pad, and instead of using thick liquid ink, efforts from early times until the present



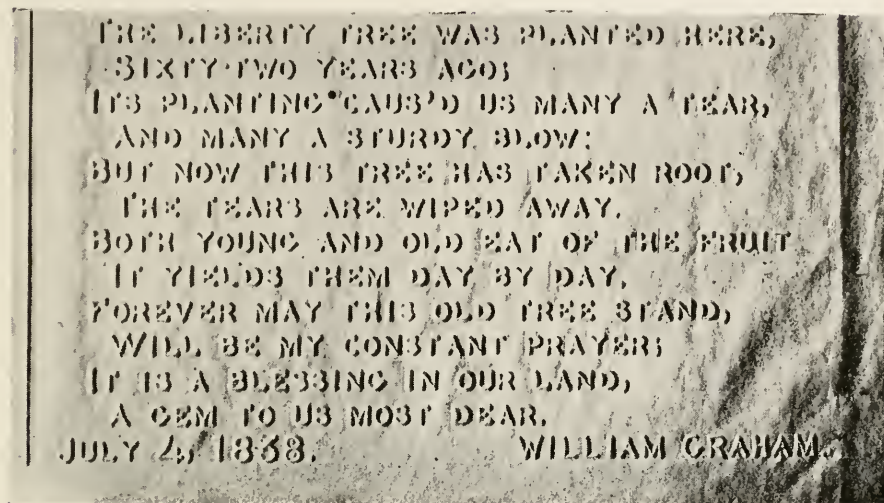
Moon type.

were to lead to a tactile writing. Already in the middle of the 18th. century, Guillié reports, a foreign savant — in order to produce print in relief — wrote with a sticky liquid on thick paper and bestrewed the writing with fine skinner's wool, the letters turned out to be too thick and were not solid enough. In an English institution writing was done with liquid rubber which was still wet when strewn with finely powdered sealing wax and held before an open fire, whereby the letters were in a sort of half relief. In 1821 Challan and Rousseau discovered an ink and sprinkled fine sand over the writing. At Haüy's request Adet and Hassenfratz attempted to establish a writing in relief in 1783 with a thick fluid ink, which however coagulated too quickly and would not flow evenly from the pen.

Haüy, a young interpreter in the office of Foreign Affairs, was attending a public fête in 1771 when he saw some blind people made a laughing stock by some jugglers. He was so touched and indignant

at such a sight that he decided to devote himself to the regeneration of these unhappy people. He first took one, then several, tried to stimulate their intelligence and succeeded. He made them recognize capital letters cut in very high relief on wood; then, having made sure that his pupils could distinguish by touch the form of letters on the back of a sheet of paper which were printed on the right side, he conceived the idea of making metal type similar to that in wood and to produce embossed writing by means of pressing the type on thick paper which had been previously dampened. So a tactile writing was produced. Haüy insisted on teaching his pupils the writing of the sighted, but on account of the size of the letters and thickness of paper and writing which could be done only on one side of the paper, the books were voluminous and heavy yet contained very little reading matter. In 1784 Haüy founded a school for blind children in Paris which was attached to the Hospice des Quinze-Vingts in 1801.

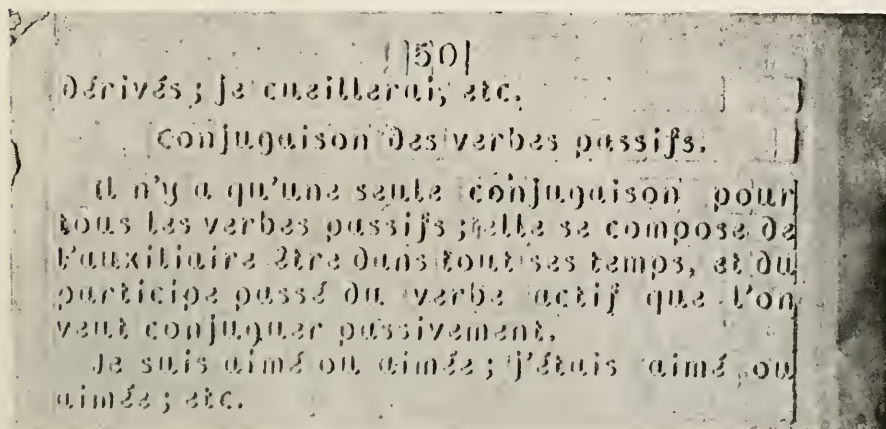
Haüy went to Russia to teach the blind and Dr Guillié, director of the Institute for Young Blind People, In England the alphabet in Latin Capitals was adapted to the touch by Dr Fry in 1836 to which small



Friedlander type.

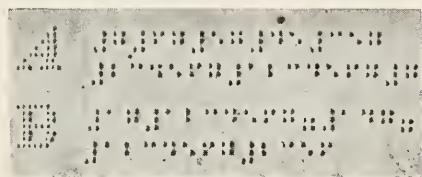
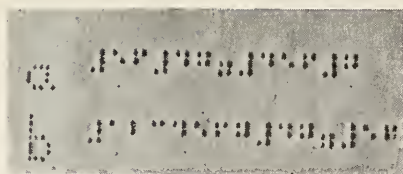
carried on Haüy's method with some of his own modifications and printed nearly 100 volumes in this school up to the year 1840.

letters were added later. About 1847 William Moon of Brighton distributed a fair number of publications in an alphabet of capital



Dufau type.





Attempts of LOUIS BRAILLE to represent ordinary small letters and capitals in raised dots (1839).

letters, which were for the greater part conventional and which were read from left to right on one line and in the contrary direction on the following line.

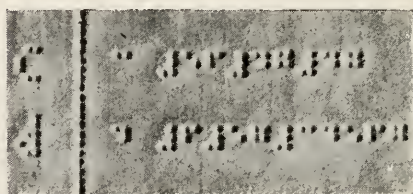
No means were left untried and much time and pains have been spent on the matter of instruction. The opinion of Klein, Guadet, Georgi, Knie and Hientzsch is expressed in few words: "that the blind should not be taught the writing of the sighted unless they have written before becoming blind. The most that can be done, is to experiment with blind people who possess a greater degree of sight and who are extraordinarily clever".

The first attempt at dot-writing, which has been preserved up to date was that of Klein, founder of a blind school in Vienna in 1804. He worked out a system known as "Stachelschrift" (writing by means of pinpricks), an alphabet of capitals five dots in height, which was circulated in Austria and Germany, where it is still used for correspondence between the blind and sighted. It is unquestionably the best of all

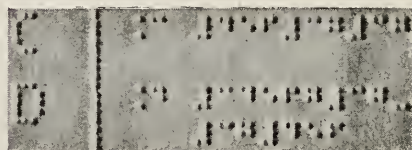
systems which Braille found before him. Klein's invention was known at the Paris Institute comparatively late through Hertelendy in 1842. At that time most inventions were sent to that Institute for investigation.

Although innumerable efforts to produce a writing as a means of correspondence between the blind and sighted have not led to complete unity, yet the history of the development of the embossed dot writing machine has not only shown constant progress but also a certain finality or at least uniformity of procedure. In individual lands there are some differences in make, but everywhere a lattice guide is used to produce embossed writing, in which one writes with a stylus containing a blunt steel point on a piece of metal or wood, either grooved or flat with groups of six dots.

Ch. Barbier did not only give the idea of an orthographical dot writing through his phonetical writing but he made an apparatus for



Ballu writing - Small letters.



Ballu writing - Capitals.

its production. Unfortunately the signs which were twice as high as a Braille letter were too extended for the touch and could be read only with difficulty. In spite of simplifications which the inventor produced, reading by touch was not much advanced. It was, however, another foundation stone on which Braille built up his researches for the formation of a practical alphabet.

Braille became acquainted with Haüy's and Barbier's systems at the Paris Institute, where he was a pupil, and realizing the advantage to the blind of dot-writing he made it his aim to produce a practical system. His first idea was to lessen by half the height of the signs, which left him with three dots in height and two in width. At first Braille did not turn to account the 63 combinations of dots which his six-dot sign allowed him. After forming a series of signs with 10 combinations of the four upper dots, which in spite of its arbitrary appearance was made logically, he formed three other series simply by placing under the 10 first signs a dot to the left, 2 horizontal dots, a dot to the right, according to the series.

After using these 4 groups of 10 signs as an alphabet, comprising the first 40 combinations of 6 dots, Braille took recourse to 56 new combinations made of dots and smooth lines for punctuation, numbers, mathematical signs, music and stenography. After working to improve his system Braille decided to use the last 23 combinations of 6 dots which he had hitherto neglected. The classical Braille was thus actually established in 1834 in any case it was codified for the first time in the 2nd. edition of the statement of procedure which appeared in 1837, which contains

besides the alphabet, a mathematical and musical notation, which has been used to the present day. Adapted to print in 1837 Braille supplanted the linear systems slowly. It was used clandestinely at first at the Institute of Paris, on account of the objection of the administration, from 1850 however it was taught there officially, from then on it radiated through France, then through the whole world.

Latin countries accepted Braille without much hesitation, Belgium (1835), Spain (1837), Brazil (1854), Switzerland (1860), Italy (1863), and Scandinavian countries: Sweden (1858), Denmark (1862). The struggle was harder in Anglo-Saxon countries. The adoption of Braille as sole writing in England ended the confusion caused by the multiplicity of competing systems there. Revised in 1905 English Braille has evolved three grades of writing—the second of which is used as current writing. Braille made its triumph in Germany only after the Congress of Paris 1878. In the United States it encountered a rival system called the "Wait System or New York Point". The dotted signs were produced horizontally instead of vertically—three dots in width and two in height and adapted to the English language so that the most-used letters were represented by signs with fewest points; Americanized Braille 1870, which was only Braille adapted to English did not produce better results. Finally unification was attained in 1932 through the adoption of British Braille Grade 2 but with slight modifications.

Adapted to Russian, Arabic, Hebrew, Chinese, and Sanscrit, Braille can be transcribed into all languages and is to-day the universal writing of the blind. To be

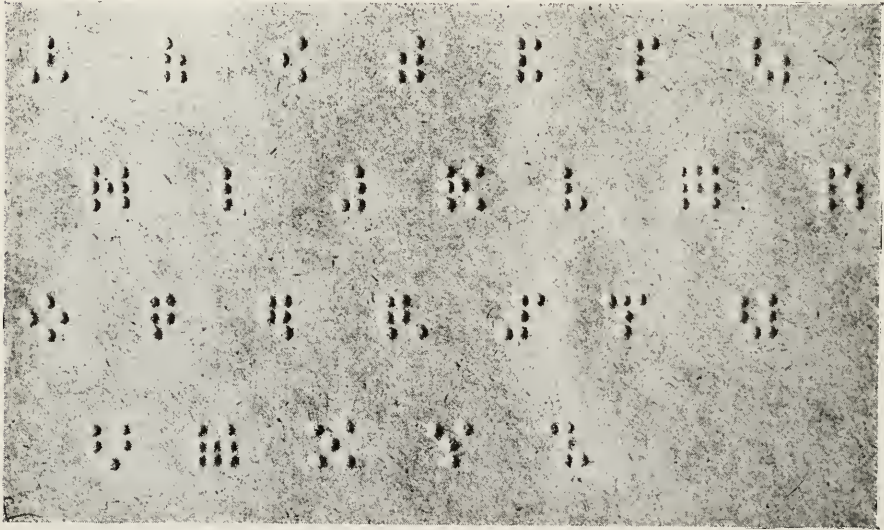
tangible, writing signs for the blind require much more space than those of the sighted and it has been the object from the beginning to reduce to a minimum the volume and weight of books thus printed.

Braille added to the alphabet which he produced in 1829, a very simple shorthand writing composed of 20 signs to which he added smooth lines; this was substituted by an abbreviated system, also phonetic, with only dot signs.

Maurice de la Sizeranne produced an abridgment in 1882, whose signs did not represent sounds but groups

Braille Press and the Association Valentin Haüy in 1924.

The first practical stenography for the blind was put forward by Ballu in 1862; its basic idea was to represent the most frequently recurring signs by the fewest dots. It surpassed speed in Braille by 60%. This has again been surpassed by mechanical stenography founded on more numerous basic signs than that of Braille, such as that of Mr. Muller 1916, whose basic signs consist of 10 dots and that of Mr. Villey 1916 based on 12 dots. There are shorthand writings in the



Cantonnet-Nouet Alphabet.

of letters, every group having its own contraction. More than 180 "symbols" of one or two signs added to the rapidity of French orthographic abridgment which was again augmented by a third through an addition to the system made by a commission set up by the American

United States and Italy but the most interesting seems to be that introduced 20 years ago for English by Henry Stainsby. Mathematical and scientific notations were invented and completely transformed before 1837 to permit the transcription of arithmetical, algebraic,



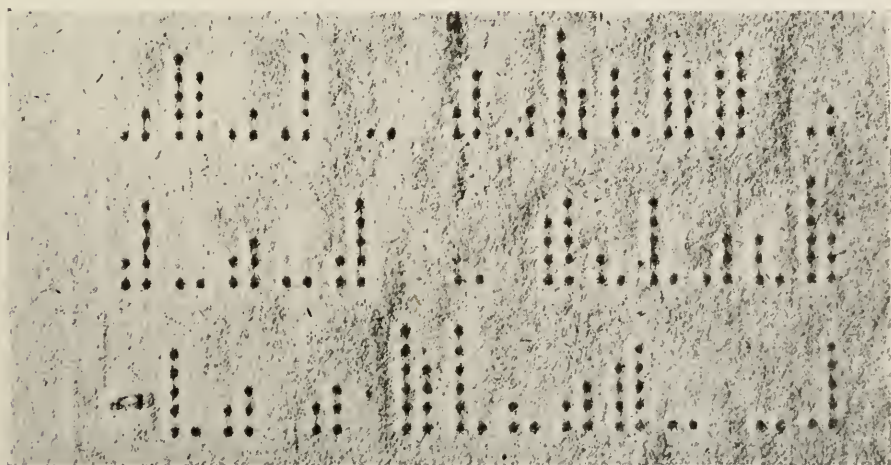
geometrical and chemical formulae—the notation was modified in 1917 for the more exact transcription of the formulae of higher mathematics.

In England and Germany different notations are in use but it is to be hoped that unity on this point will be reached.

Valentin Haüy tried to make ordinary musical signs tangible to the blind but several systems of numbers were substituted and Braille applied dotted signs to one of these systems to make it more practical. This method was however completely abandoned and replaced in 1837 by musical notation which was still in practice a few years ago nearly everywhere. Important reforms having been introduced to the system in England and America, an effort was made to unify musical notation for the blind and an agreement to that end was reached at an International Conference held in Paris in 1929.

Braille, to produce his writing, adapted the material discovered by

Barbier and soon the blind had a simple, strong and inexpensive apparatus which nearly all still use, the frame or slate. It comprises a rectangular plate covered, to receive the dots, with equidistant horizontal grooves parallel to the smaller side of the rectangle, or cells placed in groups of six so that the six dots of the position sign can be produced in each group; a guide with two or three vertical rectangular lines of cells slides from top to bottom of this plate and can be fixed where required by pushing the pins at either end into the holes of the frame, which is connected with the plate by hinges (French frame), the plate is smooth and the guide, which is joined to a receiving slat, moves with it (English frame). Dots are made on the paper placed between the receiver and the guide by placing the little stylus on a required spot in the correct cell and pressing lightly on the handle of the stylus to push the paper into the groove or cells below. Frames have been



Barbier type.



made for interline and interpoint writing, for tracing small letters and for all sizes used in Braille included in pocket-size.

Dots can be made more quickly, more correctly and with less fatigue on typewriters for Braille than on frames. These machines have six keys and those which are to produce the dots of the letter required can be pressed simultaneously. On the path of experience all the peculiarities necessary to a perfect machine as a means of correspondence for the blind have been learned. The following qualities are essential: cheapness and lightness, simplicity and convenience of handling, clarity and sureness, speed, visibility for sighted and facility of checking for the blind. If we add to these requirements the durability of the machine we have the definition of an ideal apparatus which the blind are waiting for.

Besides its slowness in comparison with ordinary writing Braille writing has been condemned as being impersonal, which is no fault; as being difficult to check up, a grievance which disappears more every day with the distribution of tactile typewriters; with only allowing correction of letters, an inconvenience which it shares with type-writing; and lastly with monopolizing very much space which is indispensable if it is to remain easily legible. Yet the encumbrance of Braille books has been reduced to a minimum, either by lessening the height and width of the letters or by using the spaces between the lines or between the dots of a page written on the right side to make other lines or dots on the back of the paper. Interline writing the blind owe to Alexandre Fournier who invented it about 1834, and interpoint is due to Ballu in 1877.

For arithmetic the blind first used, as for writing, empiric means (pins, knotted thread). However from the 18th. century with a distinguished blind man, Nicolas Saunderson, mathematical professor at Cambridge University, methods changed. He invented an apparatus for arithmetic based on the possibility of representing the first nine numbers by placing a pin in one of the nine square holes made in a metal plate, the tablet containing a great number of these squares. Although it was perfected later, this system disappeared when Haüy succeeded in teaching the blind to calculate by means of numbers printed in relief, which were placed in a rack with numerous cells. Later these ordinary numbers were substituted by Braille numbers, obtained as one knows with the aid of signs of the first series of the alphabet. The reversibility of these signs led them to be set at first in the ends of two pegs of the square (Chevilles d'Oury), then on the six sides of a little cube with which any number can be made. (Cubarithme of M. Mattei, professor at the Institute of Paris 1887). In Germany calculators are used in which moveable pegs produce in Braille signs, numbers or letters through gentle pressure on a perforated plate. (Schleussner's apparatus).

After many and varied experiments the blind have been endowed with a system of writing which a century's experience has proved practical in every way. Thanks to comparatively simple apparatuses they can be supplied with books in manuscript or print. Libraries are stocked with reading matter of all kinds. The oldest and most important library is that of the Valentin Haüy Association at Paris which contains more than 100,000 volumes,

besides periodicals in all languages which number over a hundred. Although it has been constantly perfected since its inception yet this system has retained its entireness. It is to be hoped however

that improvements will be added to enrich it and that the blind of the whole world, with the aid of the powerful auxiliary of writing, will be able to surmount more easily the obstacles scattered in their way.

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Braille alphabet.

# ATHLETICS FOR THE BLIND

By CLYDE L. DOWNS,

Teacher of Gymnastics for Boys,  
The New York Institute for the Education of the Blind.

From the time Guth Muths inaugurated playground activities physical education has gradually become a recognized subject in the school curriculum. At the present time it assumes a most important if not indispensable position in the educational program that "A sound mind in a sound body", or, to change the phrase, "A sound body must be made for a sound mind" has become no less a motto of ours than it was of the Ancients. The actual importance of physical education and athletics is evidenced by the emphasis placed upon it in the various school curricula, whether they be public or private institutions of learning. Today we find the playground in the little rural schoolhouse as well as in the beautiful modern stadium of a state university.

It is not so much the part physical education plays in the routine of the normal child as it is the importance of its use in the education of the blind, with which we are at present concerned.

To the boy-mind any talk of athletics for the blind seems superfluous. "How", we are asked, "is it possible for any one so hand-

icapped to participate in a bona fide athletic contest?" Our reply is that not only is it possible but, with very few exceptions, the blind can and do enter into every phase of athletic training with results that are wholly admirable. These results are accomplished despite the apparent impossibility and actual difficulty they have to overcome.

Athletics for the blind, even though it is yet in its infancy, has taken rapid progressive strides in the last fifty years. To the blind boy and girl it is one good medium through which contact is made with the sighted world. At a social gathering he is able to enter into the topic of conversation readily when it invariably turns to the athletic world. He has tried the particular feat in question and can actually say truthfully whether it is a great accomplishment or not.

There are very few games and sports that blind boys and girls can not enter into. Of course, in some cases the games have to be adapted to fit the needs and requirements of the children so handicapped.

Let us consider, for example, a boy's athletic program in a modern school for the blind: In the fall,

when the whole country turns its attention to football, blind boys can be found out in the athletic field punting a regulation ball and making "line rushes". Some schools have even gone so far as to challenge sighted high schools teams in a regular game, with but few minor changes and adjustments to fit the group, and have made a fine showing. These boys are not content with hearing the game by radio or the account in the daily papers but must play the game themselves.

kind of present day athletics and physical training. Here the boys do a series of warming-up exercises, calling into play every group of muscles in the body. This work is given along the lines of a regular Swedish Days Order. After a good warm-up the boys are given instruction in wrestling, and later meet with boys of the same weight from a Y. M. C. A. team and other visiting teams. Quite a bit of success and good-natured rivalry exists as a result of these meets.



Fun and Muscle Building - N. Y. I. E. B.

Who can help but agree that it takes courage for those boys to tackle a charging full-back or a fleet end? Here the blind boy gains self-confidence and learns to depend upon his own resources; he feels equal to any normal sighted boy, which tends to eliminate that feeling of inferiority which is so often prevalent.

Then when inclement weather makes it impractical to meet on the athletic field, the athletes repair to the gymnasium fitted for every

The use of apparatus is very often optional with the boys, as so much individual work is needed in order to obtain efficiency. The classes, as a rule, make much individual and manual correction impracticable because of large enrolment. However, some very proficient apparatus teams have developed and have competed with teams from other schools.

Various forms of interesting athletic events find their way into the curriculum during this season.



Boxing, adapted for our use so that it is more or less of a blocking and slugging contest, is another wholesome sport attempted by some of the boys. Little attention is paid

rules by boys who have partial vision has been a favorite sport outside of the curricular work. Teams are challenged from the Y. M. C. A. and churches and high schools, and



Open Air Gymnasium - N. Y. I. E. B.

to the scientific points of the game and more stress is laid upon the physiological benefits derived from such encounters.

Basket-ball played under regular

the boys make a very good showing as well as obtain beneficial results from these contacts.

Upon the arrival of the warm spring days the athletes come out



Pyramid Building, Girls - N. Y. I. E. B.

on the field again and begin track and field practice. Here the boys find the most interesting sports on the school calendar. From the smallest child to the grown boy they are enthusiastic about getting to work on this sport. Fondness for it is written on their beaming faces and shown by their desire to spend extra time correcting mistakes and working for proficiency. Track and field has been recommended by all the leading physical educators of the blind as the outstanding sport of the school year. It gives athletic participation to a larger group than other sports and each boy must depend upon his own ability and can not look to his team-mates for help in bringing a victory for his event.

The events are usually of the standing type with the exception of the dashes, which range in distance from fifty yards to seventy-

five and a hundred yards. For the beginners wire cables have been placed along the dash lanes to serve as guides to keep the runners in the lanes. After a while the use of the guide is discontinued and the runners make better time and become more proficient.

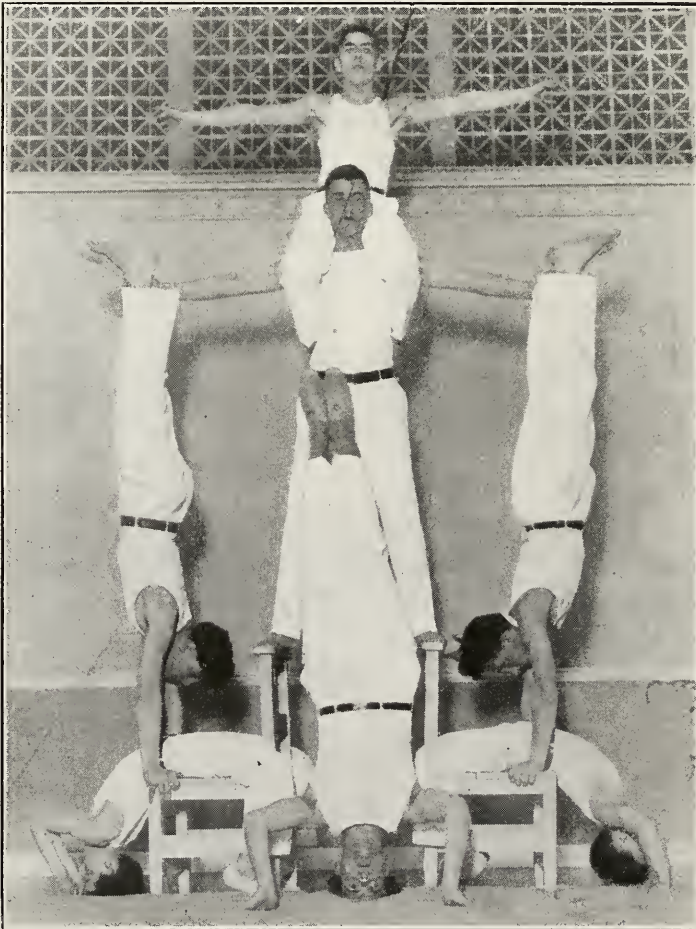
Field events consist of hop, step and jump, three consecutive jumps, broad jump, high jump, and putting the shot. These events take place on a modern field without any guides or helpful apparatus of any kind.

The statistical results of these meets are of an astonishing nature. A spectator forgets for the moment that he is watching the activities of a group of handicapped boys. He thinks more of comparing the figures mentally with high school or inter-collegiate records.

At the end of a long training period when the boys are in excel-

lent physical condition, various meets are held, first intramural meets and later interscholastic. For the intramural meets the small boys are arranged into teams and a miniature meet held. The events are arranged to give beneficial results but not to overwork the individual. Badges and ribbons are given to the winners in each event.

A few weeks later the official school team is chosen from the group of boys who have worked hardest and produced the best results. These boys are held in high esteem by the others. The honor of representing their school falls to so few that it is, indeed, an honor to be one of this select group. Later, for the boys who were ineligible to serve on



Pyramid Building, Boys - N. Y. I. E. B.





Fifty Yard Dash. The Start - N. Y. I. E. B.

the school team, an intramural meet is arranged between the boys of the several dormitories. A fine trophy has been secured for this purpose and goes to the team winning the highest number of points. This contest causes keen rivalry and every year the trophy changes ownership. This contest is most valuable because it brings more boys into active participation in this healthful sport.

Then the interscholastic meets are held with picked teams from other schools for the blind. The visiting team is welcomed and shown about the school and the athletic field. An air of good will and sociable spirit is present all the time. These meets are noted for their unlimited competitive spirit which promotes better school spirit. Every boy who wears the uniform

of his school can be depended upon to do his best to make his school win fairly, not because of the medal given him for his efforts, but because he is a healthy representative of his school.

The whole student body shows its interest in a most exuberant way, by acting as cheering squad at all athletic contests.

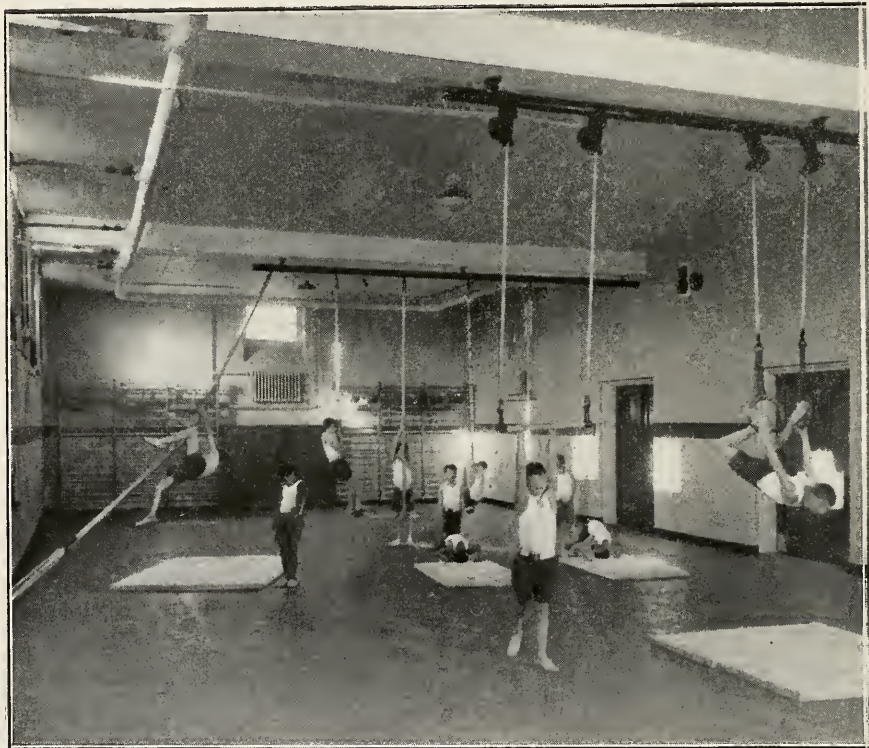
There is one organization that has done much to raise the standard of athletics for the blind, and that is the National Athletic Association of Schools for the Blind. This Association was fostered in 1908 by Dr Edward E. Allen, now Director Emeritus of Perkins Institution, and Dr Olin H. Burritt, Principal of the Pennsylvania Institution, with a membership of fifteen schools. Its chief aims are to stimulate intramural and interscholastic spirit and



promote the physical development of the children.

Both boys and girls between the ages of ten and twenty-five are required to participate annually in the contests of the N. A. A. S. B., unless excused by a physician or otherwise physically unable to take part. The contestants are grouped

chance to do their best for their class and for their school. The Association in 1922 purchased a silver cup for the girls and one for the boys, to be contested for at these meets. Banners were also purchased for the schools winning second place and third place. The Missouri School has had the leading



Gymnasium of the Lower School - N. Y. I. E. B.

according to weight and age into classes A. B. C. D. and E, and different events are scheduled for each class, according to the physical ability of the group. By this method the outstanding athlete and the mediocre athlete are given an equal

record for the last few years, although now other schools are beginning to show better ratings.

The outstanding value found in these contests is the participation of so large a group in a contest. The results themselves are not im-



A Rocking Boat Well Loaded - N. Y. I. E. B.

portant, except that the competitive spirit helps to achieve the object of these contests and all physical education work - that of a sound, healthy body, to carry on the program of life.

Let us, then, look upon athletics for the blind as an essential factor

in education, and work for more advanced programs, thereby bringing healthy active minds through healthy active bodies. We must always keep uppermost in mind that athletics and physical education denote the means rather than the end.

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# TEACHING THE BLIND BY CORRESPONDENCE

BY ALFRED ALLEN

Executive Secretary the Hadley Correspondence School for the blind,  
Winnetka, Illinois.

Fundamentally there is but little difference in the method of home study, whether it be by seeing or by blind students. The term « by correspondence » implies the carrying on of a study-course without classroom instructions or the teacher at the student's side, but rather through books furnished the student and with the direction furnished him by the teacher in a series of letters or lectures.

For the blind student, this teaching must come in the most practical form possible, so that he may be, as far as possible, independent of others in this study, and able to carry on a course without requiring the aid of seeing people. No one but a blind person knows how busy are those about him, always. It follows then that the study material will be in embossed print, and that all lectures and correspondence directed to him by the instructor will be in embossed print so that they may be referred to at any time needed.

In principle, a student will be provided with one or more text-

books needed for the course, in connection with which there is furnished (either within or separately from the text) a series of questions to serve as the basis of the student's recitations. The answers to these questions are mailed to the instructor at regular intervals, for examination and grading, and are then returned to the student with such advice and supplementary information as may be desirable. For our purposes, we permit a student to choose the method of writing out these answers, and while perhaps the majority use the ordinary typewriter, at least forty percent use Braille, while a few use New York Point or have someone write for them from dictation.

Unlike class-room study, each student is permitted to work at his own gait, which is determined in part by this preparation, in part by his native ability, in part by the time at his disposal for study, and in part by the age of his blindness. Braille reading to some of the older students is a laborious process and



one which checks their progress considerably. In general the blind student works more slowly than the seeing student.

As compared with the teaching of the seeing by correspondence the blind instructor suffers a number of handicaps. In the first place, the seeing student is usually enrolled for a fee which covers the cost of textbooks, working papers, and other necessities. We have found in our work that the blind student is unable (as a rule) to meet these costs, so no charge is made to them for our services. And in addition, embossed books being more costly than letter-press texts, the burden upon the School is considerable, for it is necessary at all times to keep on hand an adequate supply of books, if the student is to be able to work without interruptions. Further, as contrasted with the single volume into which an ordinary book may be bound, the Braille copy may be divided into several volumes. To the end that as many as possible may be served, one book must serve many enrolled at intervals, each using a different volume of the text. When students are regular and fairly rapid in their studies this works a minimum hardship upon the resources of the School; but it sometimes happens that unforeseen circumstances delay study, and a book lies idle on a shelf when badly needed by another student. This method of dividing a book among several is far from an ideal solution, for it deprives the student of the opportunity to review previously studied material, once he has returned that particular volume containing it. In the study of foreign languages, like Spanish and French, each student requires practically the entire book at all times, and each requires a vocabu-

lary always. Thus with fifty or sixty students in the Spanish course, the provision of the needed study-books is very costly. Yet another handicap is the inability to furnish at all times completely modern texts. It would be impossible financially to emboss new editions of standard text-books as frequently as they are published, and so the blind student is often using a book out-of-date in content. To illustrate, since Professor Muzzey's *An American History* (edition of 1920, ending with the close of the World War) was embossed (in 1924) there have been two new editions of the book, bringing it up to the administration of Herbert Hoover. Then, too, the seeing student is encouraged to make use of bibliographies given at intervals in the printed text, to supplement his knowledge of the subject; this is usually not possible for the blind student.

Numerous reasons prompt the blind to take up correspondence courses. To several hundreds whom we have served, the only purpose was to learn to read Braille so that they might have within themselves the power to again read, and thus a small measure of independence. For the most part, such students live in isolated places where home teachers do not call for months at a time, if at all, and where no other opportunity for proper help to learn Braille is available.

Many students enjoy the opportunity to pursue the study of some subjects which interested them in the days when they could see, but when time did not permit them to indulge their interests to the extent of more than casual study. This is particularly the case with the study of Literature, of History, of Civil Government, and of various branches of scientific study. Many



are ambitious to master something which may enable them the better to grasp whatever opportunity may come to them for remunerative work. Especially is this so of the courses in Constructive Salesmanship, Life Insurance and Business Law. The School was able, some years ago, to effect an understanding with a large life insurance company, whereby those blind students who satisfactorily completed the courses offered here were granted agencies with the company. A number of blind were granted such agencies, and several of them did surprisingly well. A letter from the President of the company mentioned these blind agents in high terms, and added that their percentage of success exceeded that of the company's seeing agents. Again, many students have children of their own entering high-school, and so they study with the hope that they may assist their children. This is quite often the case in the study of foreign languages. Another reason for enrolling for a home-study course is the desire to complete high-school training, or sometimes to secure college-entrance credits. Some of our students are teachers of one sort or another, and find the discipline of and knowledge gained from home-study extremely valuable to them. One such student is a professor of languages in a college in the east-central part of the United States. Many have Sunday-School classes and find the Scripture courses an invaluable aid in their Sunday teaching. Even blind Ministers find in such courses information not available elsewhere, in Braille. The hundreds of letters in our files reveal many reasons for enrolling for courses. Nearly all the students find in them solace and pleasant occupation for what

would otherwise mean long, empty hours. For instance, there is a young man in the West who tried suicide. After his recovery, he was persuaded to take some study-courses from the School, and he is a changed man. He is now engaged in preparing himself for American citizenship. There is a woman in the South-West who, although now more than forty years of age, never attended school in her life. Here is their one opportunity for recreation, for self-improvement, for the stimulation of their self-respect.

At this writing there are about 450 students enrolled with our own School, from every part of the United States, as well as from numerous foreign countries, including China, Japan, Australia, the Philippine Islands, Norway, Holland, England, Scotland, the West Indies, Bermuda, Newfoundland, Canada, Porto Rico and Mexico.

These people represent many walks of life, and all are spurred on by the common urge for knowledge, for education. Seldom does the school seek new students, and yet more than 250 are enrolled annually. The list of studies offered by our school may be interesting :

Primer Course in Braille Reading.  
 New English Grammar.  
 Composition and Rhetoric.  
 History of American Literature.  
 Short Story Appreciation and Writing.  
 American History (Elementary and Advanced).  
 Civil Government.  
 Ancient History.  
 Medieval and Modern History.  
 English History.  
 Algebra.  
 Arithmetic (Intermediate and Advanced).  
 Plane Geometry.

Biology.  
 Botany.  
 Chemistry.  
 Commercial Geography.  
 Descriptive Geography.  
 Geology.  
 General Science.  
 Physical Geography.  
 Physiology (Elementary and Advanced).  
 Physics.  
 Psychology.  
 Latin (1st and 2nd years).  
 French (1st and 2nd years).  
 Spanish (1st and 2nd years).  
 German (1st and 2nd years).  
 Elementary Typewriting.  
 Business Correspondence.  
 Elementary Economics.  
 Business Law.  
 Salesmanship.  
 Selling Life Insurance.  
 Introductory Bible Study Course.  
 New Testament History.

Home study for the blind on a large scale had its inception with the founding of The Hadley Correspondence School for the Blind, in 1921. Its founder, William A. Hadley, a life-long educator of the seeing, lost his sight in middle-life, and after some years of idleness, conceived the idea of carrying on his teaching by correspondence and to the blind, so that those who, like himself, wanted to study, but had not perhaps been as well fortified as he for literary pursuits, might have the advantage of his experience. In twelve years the

school has gathered about it a corps of paid and volunteer workers and educators, and has assisted more than 4,000 blind with these courses.

A student living in Scotland, thinking so well of the idea, initiated a similar movement there some years ago, for the blind of Great Britain, and her work there has expanded remarkably. A former student, whom we assisted to learn Braille, has herself now formed a correspondence class to teach the blind of Florida the Braille system.

Inquiries have come from many parts of the world, and with an uptrend in world affairs, we shall undoubtedly see a growth in the correspondence-course idea, and the blind in great numbers will enjoy privileges as yet entirely new to them.

A lot has been accomplished, but a great deal remains for the future. Many demands for new courses are as yet unfilled. New courses can be developed, and in time with the growth in financial security, the School here will be able to assist ten times as many as it can now. For depending as it does upon the good will of the public, for the most part in this small community of 12,000 people, the School has suffered severely during these past two or three years, and for the present, must proceed with caution. But our faces are turned toward the future, and the dawn of a brighter day.

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"ARTICLE FIRST: The objects for which the corporation is formed are as follows:

"To raise and receive money, funds, securities and other property by voluntary contributions, subscriptions, legacies and gifts, and disburse the same for the relief of soldiers and sailors of the United States and of the nations allied or associated with it in the conduct of the late World War who have been blinded in that war or as a result thereof, and also for the relief of and aid to those in civil life blind from any cause soever in any part of the world, through such agencies as the Board of Directors or the Executive Committee of the Board of Directors may authorize.

"To own and operate and maintain, as a mode of relief and aid to the blind, an establishment or establishments in any part of the world for the providing of reading matter, music and the like in Braille, or other method, for the use of the blind of any nation or country of the world, irrespective of whether such blind are civilians or soldiers or sailors of the nations engaged in the late World War or of other nations, including, but not by way of limitation, establishments for the printing of books, magazines and other papers in Braille or other method, and for the scientific study and development of Braille and for assisting the blind in the use thereof.

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## EDITORIAL

Professions open to the blind and to which after thorough and careful training they can hope to adapt themselves and become practically self-supporting are after all not so very numerous. In these hard times of turmoil and stress the seeing encounter great difficulties in securing work. So it is naturally still more difficult for a blind person to obtain adequate employment in proportion to his or her capacities.

Another difficulty which has become more acute of late than heretofore is the customs barriers which have been established in many countries against appliances or machines with which the blind must equip themselves in order to carry on their work. All these articles are specially devised in order to enable them to overcome their handicap;

as a rule, they are made by philanthropic organizations and are subsequently placed at the disposal of the blind at cost price, usually at a loss and very often given gratis.

Is there then therefore any common sense on the part of governments in establishing quotas on those articles as it now has too often become the rule. So much more so because in the majority of cases this cannot be considered a commercial enterprise and furthermore because these special articles are often not made or even available in the country prohibiting their entrance, even by paying high and sometimes prohibitive ad valorem duties. Sometimes special licenses must be obtained. These licenses require many complicated steps which besides being tedious for a



seeing person are usually unsurmountable for the blind.

When a blind person saves with the greatest difficulty the thirty and odd dollars required for the purchase of a Braille writer which he needs badly in order to earn his living, it is well nigh impossible for him to pay an additional amount for freight and custom duties.

And when—and we speak from our own experience in this field in several countries—after the machine has arrived and the buyer is notified of the fact, he is refused permission to take possession of it, this is really appalling and most discouraging. Mere common sense should prevail everywhere in such matters. But what can an isolated blind man do?

It seems that this is another case for cooperation on the part of agen-

cies for the blind or of organizations working on behalf of the blind, nationally or internationally. If joint action on the part of all concerned would be taken, administrations could probably be persuaded to show more common sense on the subject.

The American Braille Press is ready, in cooperation with all parties interested, to assume the responsibility of negotiations in these matters, provided a sufficient number of people respond. A few years ago an attempt in this direction was made through the League of Nations and the International Labor Office.

Now that the world is being reconstructed perhaps that this small yet important side of its reconstruction might be taken into account.

---

# SCOUTING FOR ALL BOYS

By RAY O. WYLAND

Director of Education, National Council, Boy Scouts of America

When we say "Scouting for all boys" we realize the slogan includes hundreds of thousands of physically handicapped boys who, nevertheless, have the capacity and ambition to do things as other boys, notwithstanding their partial handicap. The Boy Movement would not deny one of these boys the benefits of any part of the Scouting Program that he can do and enjoy.

At the World Conference for the Blind which met in New York City some years ago, the delegates from England, Australia, Germany and Norway emphasized the need for outdoor activities which exercise the major muscles of the body. They made specific reference to the outdoor camps, and swimming along the seashore where the beach is sandy and there is little opportunity for these handicapped children to injure themselves. They also welcomed the opportunity to acquaint sightless children with the mysteries of nature. Surely, here is an opportunity to use the Scouting Program as a great service to blind boys who have very keen senses other than sight with which to grasp and appreciate the mysteries of living things about them.

My readers will be interested to know of the new work now being done by Mrs. A. B. Armstrong of the Committee on Braille of the American Red Cross (New York Chapter), who is illustrating birds and flowers in Braille with descriptive notes that will give the blind reader some idea of the shapes and colors of the common birds and flowers. I believe this experiment has far-reaching possibilities.

That the Boy Scout Program has a real contribution to make to sightless boys has been demonstrated by the several troops which have been operating in institutions for the blind since the Movement first came to America more than twenty years ago. There are at present fifteen active troops carrying on in such institutions. These troops are widely distributed over the states and there are three such troops in the Philippine Islands. There are many more sightless boys who are members of regular Scout Troops meeting in their home communities.

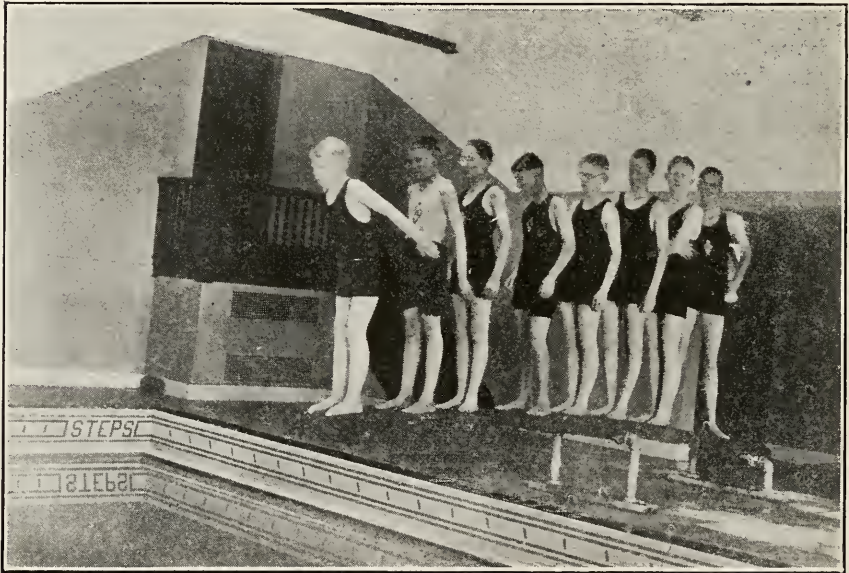
Sightless children need sympathetic, patient guidance and instruction. There is a distinct advantage to the blind boy who can belong to a regular Scout Troop. The

seeing boys can help their sightless brother Scouts in many of the activities, and he in turn can frequently surprise his fellow Scouts by his keener sense of touch and hearing and by his skill in the various Scout Crafts. Many of the handicrafts and special activities found in the Boy Scout Program are well suited to the blind.

Some have questioned whether the Scout Program which is based on active outdoor life ; camping,

handicap. And if seeing boys derive benefits from these Scouting activities, we believe the sightless boys, to an even greater extent are needing just what this Scouting Program offers them.

It is true that some of the Scout tests are very difficult if not impossible for the blind boy. He cannot locate the North Star, he could not lay a course through the woods by the points of the compass ; he could not point out the Constella-



Boy Scout Swimming Team in the North Carolina State School for the Blind, Raleigh, N.C. Every member of the team is a Junior Red Cross Life Saver.

hiking, swimming, boating, canoeing, cooking and other skills of the outdoorsman could be of practical value to boys who cannot move about so freely in the open. We find in the rich and varied Scout Program something of value for each boy, no matter what his

tions in the heaven. However, the blind boy can identify the birds by their calls. Well do I remember a blind man in Pittsburgh who helped us wonderfully in a broadcast, in the early days of Radio, by making the sounds of the crackling camp fire and the call of the owl



Boy Scouts of the Connecticut Institute for the Blind,  
Hartford, Conn.

and whippoorwill and many other birds to liven up our campfire scene and program which was given on the air. He can identify flowers, shrubs and trees by their fragrance, shape and taste, he can swim and paddle a canoe when another boy is with him to help guide the canoe, and he can make the 14 mile hike and write a complete descriptive report on it, if accompanied by an alert and seeing Scout; and it is more than probable that both Scouts will get more out of the hike by working together.

Happily, our Troops of blind boys have achieved very commendable results. A survey of 258 Scouts in 15 Troops in State Institutions for the blind reveals 139 Tenderfoot Scouts, 78 Second Class, 21 First Class, 10 Star Scouts and 10 Life Scouts.

The State School for the Blind at Louisville, Kentucky has maintained a Scout Troop since 1911 and

proudly acclaims two Eagle Scouts. The Scout State School for the Blind at Vancouver, Washington, has enrolled a Patrol of its boys in one of the Troops of the neighborhood. This Patrol is fully able to hold its own in the Troop. The State School for the Blind at Columbus, Ohio, has a Troop which takes a definite part in the Program of the Annual Scout Circus.

Albert Barnard of Mount Carroll, Illinois is an honor student in the Law School of Harvard University. He completed four years of college work in three at Wesleyan University, Bloomington, Illinois, and graduated with the highest standing of his class and was awarded the President's prize. He is a talented musician and has many other accomplishments.

The Boy Scout swimming team at the State School for the Blind at Raleigh, North Carolina won first honors at the Council swimming





Albert Barnard, Mount Carroll, Ill., is an honor student in the Law School of Harvard University, although blind. While a student at Wesleyan University at Bloomington, Ill., he finished a four years course in three years, graduated with the highest scholastic standing of the class, and was awarded the Presidents's Prize.

meet a few years ago. Every boy in this Troop is a Junior Red Cross Life Saver.

This Troop also takes pride in its excellent Bugler, Scout Hubert Liverman, who won the 1927 Rexcraft Trophy.

I wish space permitted me to tell more of the famous Lighthouse Troop sponsored by the New York Association for the Blind, and the Owl Patrol of Troop 10, Kentucky Institute for the Blind, also The State School for the Blind, Kansas City.

By the accompanying picture, of

Troop 4 Faribault, Minnesota, you will note that these sightless boys have real pride in their Scout uniforms.

The fundamental objectives of the Scout Program including all of its activities and the Merit Badge projects, is to develop character and train for citizenship. The Scout Troop and Patrol put boys into positions of responsibility where their self-reliance, initiative, and independence are developed. For handicapped boys, this kind of program has a wonderful psychological effect.

Lest a handicapped boy may become discouraged, because he cannot master some of the required skills in the progressive ranks of



Boy Scout, Hubert Liverman, of Troop No. 22, North Carolina State School for the Blind, Winner of the Rexcraft Trophy for his work as bugler.

Scouting, a special classification has been provided for him. Such boys may become Achievement Scouts.

The First Class Scout has mastered certain skills with the knife and axe; he has learned something of fire-building, cooking, first aid, bird study, astronomy, geology and botany. He may then proceed to master the Merit Badge skills in any of more than 100 subjects.

The Achievement Scout takes a short cut to accomodate his physical handicap. He completes all the Tenderfoot requirements which include knowledge of the Scout Oath and Law, history of the American Flag, and ability to tie certain specified knots.

If the Achievement Scout finds any one of the Second Class requirements beyond his capacity because of his handicap, he may substitute for it some other task within his capacity which he feels is a test as difficult for him as the other would be for the normal boy. The selection of these substitute tasks is left entirely to the Achievement Scout. A selection of his substitute test is a fine stimulus to his initiative and resourcefulness. In this way he may be awarded the Achievement Badge and a Certificate for the Second Class and First Class requirements, and thereafter all the Merit Badge projects are available to him.

These Merit Badge projects are so designed that they may be grouped in related fields and serve as a prevocational exploratory experience, closely related to vocational guidance. The boy is thus enabled to discover for himself whatever gifts, aptitude or interest he may possess and in many cases he is led into the selection of his life's work.

In this Merit Badge work, the local Councils of the Boy Scouts of America have enrolled tens of thousands of volunteer counselors. The guidance of these patient, friendly and high grade craftsmen, scientists, naturalists, etc. has been a wonderful help to thousands of boys who are planning their education for their life work. How much this kind of friendly association with a skilled counselor can mean to a sightless boy will be readily appreciated.

The service ideals of Scouting have a great appeal for boys who have too often looked to others for help rather than to seek out people on whom to work off their daily good turn. Every Boy Scout does at least one good turn a day, and he is ever on the alert seeking additional opportunities to do a good turn. The Scouting skills are designed to equip him for this service and the good turn is an excellent tool to develop capacity to care about others. First Aid rendered by Boy Scouts has actually saved a number of lives. Scouts have made approximately 2,000 rescues, and 19 Scouts have given their lives in efforts to save others.

More important than the good turn is the attitude of mind which prompts the good turn. We believe that a boy's experience as a Scout, in doing the things which the Program of Scouting inspires and stimulates, forms habits of conduct which reflect a wholesome attitude toward life and respect for the rights and feelings of others.

When these Scouting skills, good turns and attitudes of good will are worked out they result in habits of conduct, self-reliance, resourcefulness, determination, moral fiber, and a self-control such as one would expect to find in men

of character equipped for the responsibilities of citizenship in a democracy.

As I close this article, I am happy to announce that the «American Printing House for the Blind », Louisville, Ky., is now reproducing the *Handbook for Boys* in Braille, and that by special aid from the

Gouvernement, these books in Braille will be available to all Scout Troops for the Blind; and blind boys in neighborhood Troops may be able to secure a copy of this Handbook for their individual use. Inquiries should be addressed to the American Printing House for the Blind at Louisville, Ky.



Boy Scout Troop No. 4 in the Minnesota School for the Blind, Faribault, Minn.



# BLIND STENOGRAPHERS

By PAUL GUINOT\*

President of the Federation of French Blind

Can typewriting be considered a lucrative employment for the blind? For a long time this has been a frequently debated question, which must be decided in the affirmative, and I cannot thank the American Braille Press enough for authorising me to try to convince the readers of *And There Was Light* of it.

The invention of the typewriter gave birth to a new corporation by means of which the manual labor, particularly that of women, found extensive openings.

The blind very quickly tried to adopt it as a profession, but they soon realized that stenography alone could not prove to be a lucrative trade for them.

To obtain a stenographic copy of a manuscript, as well as for the revision of a typed text, a helper was necessary to dictate or correct the work of a blind stenographer whose science was thus strictly limited to the mechanical part.

Lacking a machine or system to supplement or do away with the indispensable helper, the blind were obliged for many years to use the

typewriter for their personal use, particularly for their correspondence.

The advantages they obtained in this way were obviously of great value. There are now tens of thousands who are grateful to progress, through which they have acquired a little more independence and have become more liberated from the fetters of their infirmity.

Yet, the corporation of professional stenographers remained closed to the blind. To enable them to take their place in the ranks, some means had to be discovered which would be capable of supplementing the visual senses and eliminating in a corresponding degree the sighted auxiliary.

A way must be found in the first place to facilitate the recording of dictation so that its stenographic transcription would be possible without any intermediary.

The taking of dictation and its typed reproduction are the essentials of the business of a typist; at any rate from a commercial, industrial or administrative point of view, it is that which gives it significance.

The appearance of dictaphones, a product of the phonograph, the invention of shorthand writers, open-

---

\* Blind.



ed up possibilities. A rapid adoption of both inventions permits some people who are particularly gifted to occupy advantageous positions.

M. Constant Aussel has held a position as typist and telephone operator, his copies going straight to the printer, for 25 years with the *Petit Meridional*, a French daily paper whose circulation is 100,000 copies.

At the receiver, M. Aussel repeats into the megaphone of his dictaphone the messages which he receives. The recording done, the typewritten transcription is made from the dictation of the machine which has just recorded it. The typewritten copies done by M. Aussel are so accurate that they never require revision. Taken from the machine they are passed directly to the editorial department and from there to the printing department.

That is one of many typical instances simply chosen to prove that professional typewriting is now accessible to the blind. As part of the equipment of the modern office the dictaphone is used at present almost everywhere.

It would seem that the blind, who are compensated for the lack of vision by the development of the auditory sense, are predestined to the use of the dictaphone and to its use as an auxiliary in office work. In various countries already a number of blind use it and it cannot be too highly recommended, as it will certainly provide both interesting and lucrative professional channels of work. That however is beside the point. Let us return to it.

Although the typewriter is today a real instrument of work, to a certain number of blind, it must be admitted that the profession

of typist, such as we have in mind, including the preliminary science of shorthand, is not yet open to the blind.

Now I want to call attention to the fact that it can be so.

Two conditions must however be brought into effect: that of having the necessary accessories at hand and that of organizing a useful, technical apprenticeship. Of course, there can be no question of apprenticeship until the question of machines is solved, so we will first discuss this. Let us state at once that the only machine necessary is one to record embossed short hand, the only means permitting a blind person to write rapidly from dictation and to read it himself without intermediary.

At the moment there are various models of machines for Braille writing. Whether it be the Hall machine (America), Stainsby (England), Picht (Germany), Constançon (Switzerland), or the most recent one constructed by the American Braille Press, all permit of writing with abbreviated signs used by the blind of various countries. However, these are typewriters, not shorthand machines.

They are all built on the same principle a keyboard with six keys manipulates 6 styles which striking the paper produce all the dots at once. Handled so as to form the signs of our abbreviated systems, our typewriters permit already of a very fast writing. Yet none of them could attain the speed required to take from dictation a speech, a lecture or a mere letter. If our Braille signs could be used as a sound alphabet, several styles would have to be struck at once to produce a single sign, in ordinary shorthand one key would be enough to obtain a sound.

On the other hand, our typewriters for Braille require constant change of paper, from which one can gather that considerable delay is caused which is incompatible with professional practice.

So a real embossed shorthand and the machine to produce it was a necessity. In France research to this end was begun in 1912.

The machine devised by Mr. Bivor for mechanical shorthand impelled this research. A first model was made by Mr. Gentil - it was not satisfactory. The sonographic signs which it recorded were placed side by side round two parallel guiding marks, placing consonants and vowels in line. This happened before the Great War of 1914. In 1916 Lieut. Muller, a war-blind, constructed a new machine on a new principle. The sonographic signs were superposed on two lines, one for the consonants, the other for the vowels.

The advantage of this principle were immediately noticeable. Under the advice of Messrs Villey and Germain Lejeune, who collaborated in the work, Mr. Patrix, mechanic, perfected the machine which he made in June 1914. Rather heavy and unsatisfactory in shape, Mr. Patrix's machine afforded immediately a most satisfactory product. Using the Bivor keyboard and the principle devised by Lieut. Muller, Mr. Patrix's machine, now called Villey, is manipulated by twenty keys, each containing a single embossed dot placed on two superposed lines. The sonographic value of each of these dots is given by a guide; this is provided at each stroke by the machine itself; it is simply a Braille sign composed of three vertical dots. The combinations obtained through the dot and the guide furnish 20 sonographic

signs identical in value to those produced by the Bivor machine. As in this machine, the shorthand text is produced on a strip of paper which unrolls automatically.

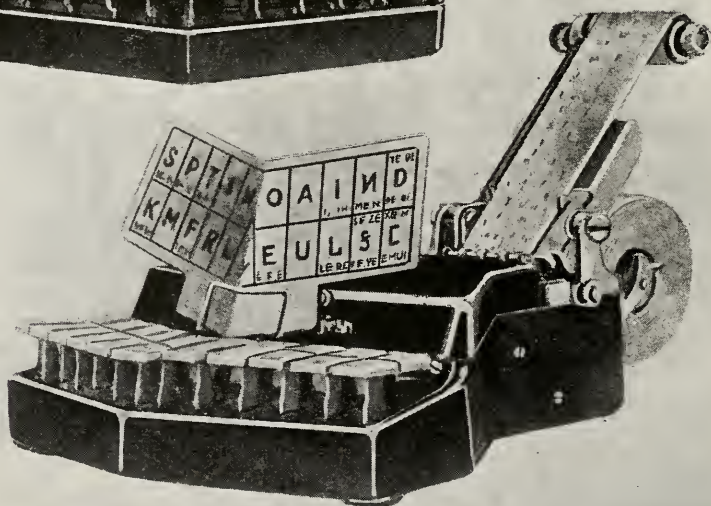
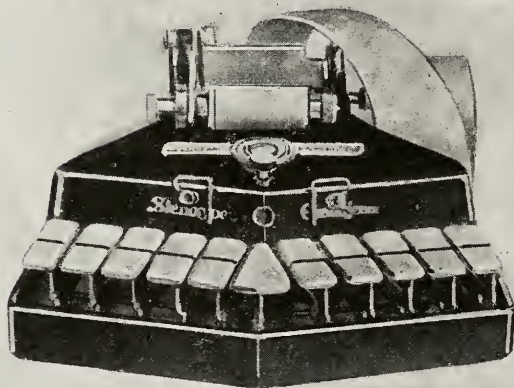
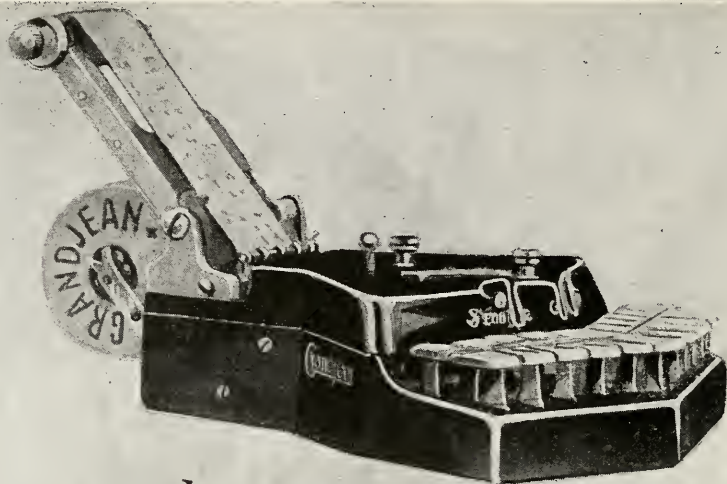
The great advantages, which result for the blind shorthand typist from the similarity of the keys and the sonographic values, can readily be seen. The operator can use the Villey or Bivor machines with equal ease and impartiality.

To produce embossed signs the shorthand machine of Mr. Patrix is certainly a little more noisy than that of Mr. Bivor. Demonstration proves however beyond doubt that from the point of speed the Braille machine bears comparison if the operator himself is up to the standard of competition with the sighted shorthand typist.

Of course the reading of the shorthand produced by the machine in question demands a minute tactile practice and doubtless for that reason the blind who lose their sight later in life will have some difficulty in adapting themselves to it. That is however a minor difficulty since it is principally in the taking and reproducing of shorthand into typing that the technical qualities of the blind shorthand typist will be revealed.

To be convincing, this exposé should be proved by at least one example. The following may appear perhaps an exception. The fact is that the unusual technical qualities of the man in question do not need to be required for a shorthand typist to become sufficiently professional to rival the average sighted shorthand typist.

Mr. Germain Lejeune, blind from childhood, was first trained in ink shorthand typing under the care of Mr. Bivor himself. Very gifted,





he rapidly acquired a remarkable sense of mechanism. An honors scholar in all competitions in which he entered, he attained in 1921 the speed of 160 words a minute and took the 1st prize with gold medal at the French Association of Professional Stenographers. Having recourse to a sighted helper for the transcription of his shorthand into typewriting, he thought out an embossed shorthand and a machine to produce it. He contributed his ideas to the construction of the Patrix machine and it was he who first tried it. On his recommendation the first machine was improved upon. A second machine with 10 models was then built, thanks to the financial aid of the Valentin Haüy Association.

With one of those machine which since then has in no wise been perfected, he entered in January 1920 the Thompson Houston firm where he was assigned to a particularly skillful work—that of patents.

For 12 years Mr. Germain Lejeune has held here a position, as the testimonials of his employers prove, in which he has proved that shorthand typing is a profession accessible to certain blind.

Recording from the dictation of engineers, texts which are often abstract and full of technical formula, as one can imagine, Lejeune transcribes them on his Remington typewriter without the aid of a sighted helper.

The precision of his handling the machine, the exactness of his figuring, the perfection of his spacing permit of his producing typing which does not require the least correction, and I can maintain without fear of contradiction that Lejeune attains the maximum result which the best sighted shorthand typist can produce.

It is hardly necessary to say that the embossed shorthand machine constructed in 1920 by Mr. Patrix requires a certain number of improvements to facilitate its operation, and consequently the handling of it.

Doubtless that is in itself an enterprise capable of offering to the whole world a new professional calling for the blind, and to achieve this end it is merely the makes of a machine.

For reasons hard to trace and in spite of personal efforts of Mr. Germain Lejeune to give a lead, his example is almost unique. At a period when the world depression has affected the blind worker more adversely perhaps than any other, when mechanism kills their labor, scientific progress checks their talents and threatens them even in their capacity as artists, the necessity is urgent to afford them compensation in opening up new professions to them.

I am convinced that a number of intelligent blind people who have received a good primary education, and on whom efforts are spent to make them moderate musicians, could become shorthand typists and take more prominent places in life. The first problem that of a machine has to be solved.

For years the American Braille Press has pursued throughout the world a magnificent work—that of popularizing the Braille. Through its medium a number of brains, hitherto darkened by blindness, are illumined, penetrated by spiritual light flashing with Braille writing.

To the end of redeeming the blind through reading, the American Braille Press has made use of every possible means making apparatuses, building machines, inventing



systems, installing printing plants and subsidizing them in every country of the world from which emanate millions of little embossed dots, bearers of light, producers of intelligence, creators of activity.

Would it be audacious to ask at this point if through the medium of the American Braille Press a new industry, with Braille as its base,

could be opened to thousands of blind throughout the world.

In broaching the idea, I am sure that I am expressing an unanimous and earnest desire of the French people, and for the realization of which I am certain the American Braille Press will find all necessary cooperation from the readers of *And There Was Light*.

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### FORM FOR BEQUEST

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I give and bequeath to the American Braille Press, Inc.  
598, Madison Avenue, New York, N. Y., the sum of  
..... Dollars to  
the general use of the said corporation.

.....  
(Signature)

.....  
(Address)

# BRAILLE STENOGRAPHY AND TYPEWRITING. HOW IT SHOULD BE TAUGHT AND PRACTISED

BY BEN PURSE\*

Head, Services to the Blind Department, National Institute for the Blind, Britain:  
Hon. General Secretary, National Association of the Blind of Great Britain and  
Ireland.

One of the principal difficulties with which workers on behalf of the blind are ever confronted is that of endeavouring to find suitable occupations for those who owing to a variety of reasons cannot be classified as industrial or manual workers. Education, temperament and taste have always to be considered, if our real desire is to discover and develop suitable pursuits for those who do not wish to practise the occupations that are followed in the regularised Institutions. It is certain that these considerations greatly influenced those pioneers who thought of stenography and typewriting as a congenial and remunerative profession for a limited number of blind persons whose educational attainments are such as to fit them for *entrée* into this important sphere of work. As we shall endeavour to show, the faith of our precursors has been abundantly justified, in that they happily

decided upon a profession that is capable of absorbing a number of people for whom institutions, societies and agencies for the blind are unable to cater, in a way that can be regarded as satisfactory.

The object of this article therefore is to testify to the achievements of those who, by strenuous application, have demonstrated beyond all dispute that, given the right kind of education and training, they can hold their own by performing useful service in literature, commerce and industry.

Let us consider first the teaching of typewriting, a subject which we think might with advantage be introduced into the curriculum of all schools for blind children, where elementary instruction in this subject could well be made available for the older children. There are two important reasons to be urged for this contention: first, to familiarise the blind child with the correct use of the capital letter, a weakness which is often apparent

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\* Blind.

when people without sight commence to use a typewriter: and secondly, to rectify errors in spelling which sometimes arise through the fact that the blind child becomes so accustomed to reading contracted Braille that he does not think of the actual spelling of certain words, and also because by reason of his handicap he is not continually confronted, by means of advertisements, &c., with words which by the seeing child are regarded as a matter of course and to which no conscious thought is given. If these difficulties can be overcome at an early stage, the subsequent instruction necessary to equip the pupil for the profession by which he is to obtain a livelihood will be less hampered with elementary details over which time has to be spent in preparing students under existing circumstances.

It is thirty years ago since the writer of this article first secured a working knowledge of Braille shorthand and typewriting. At that period only a very few blind persons were engaged professionally in this calling, but we had already been able to say with confidence that the occupation was one which could be practised satisfactorily by our people, always provided that reasonable care were exercised in the selection of suitable candidates. Experience has abundantly justified that point of view, and in England and Wales at the present time Braille stenography and typewriting constitutes one of the most congenial and remunerative pursuits followed by the blind. The latest available figures show that 166 civilian blind persons are engaged in this profession: in addition, the authorities of St. Dunstan's organisation acting on behalf of War-blinded men, have been most

assiduous and untiring in their efforts to secure appointments for a number of suitable men whom they have trained, and 29 such appointments are held by them. In this country also blind stenographers and typists are employed in Government Departments, in the offices of various local authorities and in ordinary commercial houses.

The British system of Braille stenography may be rightly considered to be the result of much scientific research and resourceful effort, and it has been so devised as to be capable of easy application both for commercial and literary purposes. It is based largely upon the system introduced by Isaac Pitman and others, and has been modified and improved as circumstances and experience have determined. The principles governing phonetic spelling have been applied and ingenious signs devised for phrasing and other purposes, so that the system can be used for every description of work. Verbatim reports, being a necessary condition resulting from any well-applied system of stenography, are always made available, and indeed must of necessity follow from the application of the system that is in operation in Britain.

We have seen it seriously suggested that all a blind operator need do is to take extensive notes from dictation and fill in such details when the notes are transcribed as to interpret the wishes and intentions of the dictator, but this is in no degree whatever a satisfactory way of dealing with text, and is moreover, a tacit admission that your blind operator is incapable of reproducing a verbatim report of the matter dictated. More important still, however, is the fact

that it gives a false impression of the qualifications of a properly instructed stenographer. The basic consideration which must always influence an employer is that the person engaged must be thoroughly competent to discharge the duties devolving upon him, and he cannot be satisfied to allow a typist to interpret his wishes by producing a statement which differs essentially from the one dictated. There is no need whatever to rely upon such devices, for the system in operation in Britain is capable of meeting all demands, and operators can be trusted to do their work with such skill and efficiency as to leave no room for makeshift arrangements which never can be uniform and are always unscientific.

Needless to say, the shorthand system itself would be of little value were it not for the fact that small machines have been invented, the manipulation of which gives an almost incredible speed. Most operators can take down dictation at anything from 100 to 125 words per minute, but these speeds are often exceeded by highly competent workers who record at the rate of 150 words per minute. As we have stated, the machine is designed to take down verbatim reports or letters from dictation.

The shorthand machine was originally invented in 1899, by Mr. Henry Stainsby, late Secretary-General of the National Institute for the Blind, London. A Committee was immediately set up to devise an appropriate system of shorthand writing, and it was not until 1911 that the work of this Committee was again revised, with the result that we have a system that is flexible and comprehensive. The new model of the machine, known as model "D", weighs about 5 1/2 lbs,

and with the case 11 1/4 lbs, so that it may therefore be said to be portable.

The success of a blind stenographer is as much dependent upon personal aptitude and practical experience as upon ordinary ability and knowledge of technique. The general routine of a large office necessitates the use of several kinds of paper, and the operator should arrange them in a cupboard or drawer in such a way that whatever is required may be found immediately and without assistance. Printed headings can easily be detected by touch, but it is a saving of time to so arrange the paper that all such headings face in the same direction. Those types of paper which are less frequently used should be kept in separate boxes, to which Braille labels may be attached denoting their contents. On commencing work in a particular office, the operator should experiment with a view to finding means of determining the exact position on the paper for inserting file references, numbers, dates or addresses on special forms, &c. After a little experience the typist automatically finds the correct place by gauging the position of the paper in relation to the typewriter. There should be no difficulty in putting together any number of copies that may be required, as the sensitive touch will easily detect the face of the carbon sheet.

Tabular work can be performed accurately by means of a Braille scale fixed on the front of the typewriter. This scale consists of a strip of metal on which raised characters are embossed at every fifth degree along the entire width of the machine. Apart from this addition the blind operator needs no other special device, but is able



to manipulate any make of type-writer without difficulty. The Braille scale can of course be attached to any standard machine, including portable ones.

The routine of a large department often requires the typist to transcribe work for several dictators, and since Braille shorthand is written on a long strip of paper a good deal of time would be wasted if each separate piece of dictation had to be rolled up until the opportunity for transcribing it arrived. To obviate this difficulty a small hook can be fixed in a rack or some convenient place, where each piece of shorthand may be left until required.

The shorthand must be word-perfect, even to punctuation if specified, and the operator, when requested to do so, must be prepared to read the previous sentence or paragraph, making any alterations which the dictator may desire. This can be done quickly by erasing any given word or phrase with the finger, and writing the ones substituted in brackets. Every stenographer can devise methods for dealing with particular situations as they arise, and such situations provide opportunities for the exercise of that initiative and efficiency

which are so essential to the blind operator if he is to compete successfully with his seeing colleagues.

From the foregoing observations it will be seen that there is no longer any doubt regarding the ability of blind persons to engage successfully in this profession. Within certain limits they can easily compete with seeing operators. It would be futile, however, to urge that every small office could absorb a blind stenographer and typist, that is unthinkable. Where there is a variety of work and a reasonable number of persons are employed, there ought to be no difficulty in providing useful occupation for a professional blind man or woman. It frequently happens however, that the necessity to rearrange duties and make trifling modifications in the work meets with opposition. To this aspect of the problem therefore our organisations for the blind must address themselves: but they must do more than that. They must be prepared to show, by the conduct of their own affairs, that they themselves have confidence in the capabilities of blind stenographers and typists, and be ever willing, to the limit of their ability, to find places for such persons within their own administrations.

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# THE WORK OF THE BLIND IN SPAIN

By JOSÉ EZQUERRA\*

President of "Federacion Hispanica de Ciegos", Barcelona

We have always felt a very particular predilection for questions relating to the work of the blind, because we have always believed and still believe that it is only by means of work that those who are deprived of the precious gift of sight will one day be reintegrated into social life.

For this reason, in the course of our modest activities in the field of work for the blind in Spain, we have spent all our efforts to the end of giving those who are deprived of sight the means of earning a decent living through exercising a profession, that is to say through the product of their own personal effort.

We have never felt a preference for any profession or office, but every time we have seen the possibility of work for the sightless, there we have directed our steps, because we maintain that we must avail ourselves of all the possibilities of work that human activities might offer the blind, without rejecting a single one, small or trifling as they might appear to us, for we estimate this is the only way to attain the complete rehabilitation of all citizens deprived of vision.

We are so entirely convinced of what we say above, that all the efforts of the "Federacion Hispanica de Ciegos" are directed towards this aim, which is paramount to us, because on the day the blind person is in possession of a position or of employment which enables him to face the necessities of life, *he will no longer be blind*, and also, his existence will cease to project itself into the spirit and heart of the sighted as utterly miserable. This is the origin of false compassion and pity which, in the end, deny to the blind all his faculties, either mental or physical.

We have taken as motto for our work: *the greatest misfortune of those who do not see is not blindness itself but the lack of ways and means to earn their living.*

Let us give the blind a decent medium to earn a living and we shall reintegrate him completely into social life, and we shall also relieve him of the heavy weight of his adversity.

What we say is so true, that it will be enough to mention the case of a man who lost sight when he was almost 40 years old. His despair was boundless, more for the misery his blindness was bringing with it than for the darkness which

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\* Blind.

surrounded him. He was crying continually, but these tears were produced more through the loss of his daily bread, which he used to earn by work, than through the absence of light. He entered a small workshop established in Barcelona, and his desire to work for a living and that of his family was so great, that he soon forgot his blindness and spent all day singing and working eagerly. Soon he succeeded in earning a daily salary almost equal to what he had when his eyes could see the light.

Unfortunately, in our country the Government has never taken an interest in the social problem of blindness, the municipalities and provincial governments have done the same, confining themselves in some cases to the creation of schools for general education, which schools, being poor and badly directed, never consider the problem of work for the blind, which is more expensive and much more complicated than that of education.

However, in spite of the lack of official protection and of private institutions for the protection of the blind, which do not exist at all in Spain, there is a multitude of sightless persons who, without help from anybody, merely through their own efforts have found a way to social rehabilitation in innumerable branches, earning sometimes wages or salaries higher than those of many sighted people.

Besides the large number of blind people who carry out the duties of professors in all branches and in all grades of institutions caring for the education of the blind, there is a great number of sightless people who are organists, particularly in country parishes. Many others sell newspapers in stipulated places; some are correspondents in small

towns for city newspapers. There are some who are typists in official organizations and others are music teachers for sighted children attending public schools. There are also blind telephonists, too few unfortunately in this capacity so appropriate for those who do not see. There are also masseurs. In Barcelona there are about twelve; they have taken courses for this career at the Faculty of Medicine, in the same classes as the sighted; with their diploma they practise the profession of masseurs, which is rather profitable under certain conditions. One of these masseurs of Barcelona, who graduated in the faculty of Medicine of this city, obtained the first place in two competitions; after three years of practice he succeeded in earning over 500 pesetas per month, a salary which exceeds that of the most capable workers in very coveted positions.

A profession in which the greatest number of blind who are compelled to earn their living in the streets are employed, is that of sellers of tickets for the National Lottery. This profession, unknown in other countries, consists of the purchase of a National Lottery ticket by the blind, which ticket is divided into ten parts. As the greater number of citizens cannot buy a ticket, or even a tenth, the blind who bought the ticket makes as many parts as he has paid pesetas for buying it. Being himself the depositary of the ticket or of the tenth divided into fractions, he then sells in the streets the fractions made out of the ticket or tenth of ticket. For each share, the public give the seller one peseta, plus ten centimes in compensation for his work. In that manner, if the blind man sells 50 shares, he will have earned 5 pesetas, without mentioning generous

persons who, instead of giving him 10 cents give him 20 or sometimes 30 cents. Moreover, as the blind man is the depositary of the ticket or of the tenth, if the number is drawn, when he shares the money between the persons favoured by Fate, these persons give him sums in proportion to the prize won.

The blind who make a living selling lottery tickets are innumerable; and if it is true that we cannot estimate their number, we can affirm that there are several thousands who devote themselves to this profession.

The "Federacion Hispanica de Ciegos" taking as a basis all these activities carried on by the blind, endeavours constantly to augment them, so that every day the number of those deprived of sight who will be saved from beggary is increased; to that end negotiations have taken place with the "Patronato Nacional de Proteccion de Ciegos" for the

establishment of workshops, at least one in each province. We also endeavour to obtain a certain number of jobs as telephonists and music teachers for children attending public schools in towns of less than 10,000 inhabitants.

In a word, the work of the "Federacion Hispanica de Ciegos" can be condensed in two points mentioned: organization of the blind, and organization of work for them.

We do not overlook the innumerable difficulties which we shall meet although the spirit of cooperation of the blind of Spain daily becomes more obvious; but through the intense propaganda which we carry on, we have constant occasion to come across these noble rebels who find it difficult to resign themselves to being excluded from the privileges of the sighted, in which they have the same right to participate as those who are able to see and to enjoy the beauties of Nature.

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# ACUPUNCTURE AND CHINESE MEDICINE IN JAPAN

By Dr. TYOTOKU NAKAYAMA

Translated by Dr. NYOITI SAKURAZAWA

and Dr. GEORGE SOULIÉ DE MORANT. Condensed from "Hippocrate"

*At the World Conference on Work for the Blind held in April 1931, in New-York City, Mr. Akiba of the Tokio School for the Blind in his report mentioned Acupuncture and Moxibustion as professions for the blind in Japan. Most of the delegates certainly were not familiar with the subject and we have received several inquiries dealing with it. Hence the reason for the publication of the following article in this Bulletin which gives a good insight into this matter.*

EDITOR.

In Japan, before the introduction of European medical methods, Chinese medicine alone was known. It was studied in its original texts since ideographical Chinese writing is still used in Japan concurrently with another phonetic and special writing.

Now in 1884, a decree founding the Tokio Faculty of Medicine prohibited the instruction of old systems of medicine in order to compel students to devote themselves entirely to European principles.

The country however could not be deprived of doctors. Old practitioners were permitted to carry on

their profession. Dr. Asada, who used old methods and who had been physician to the preceding Emperor, was also head of the old school and had many students. Chinese and Western medicine were practised from then on side by side. It was to be expected that a strict difference would be made. However the Japanese students of 1884 had become masters. A race of savants was established one of whom was Dr. Nagaoka, whose works on anatomical construction and mutation are on record.

Having mastered Western methods the Japanese medical corps gradually split up. Some rejected

Chinese medicine without studying it because Europe ignored it. Others could not shut their eyes to the cures, sometimes miraculous, accomplished by old practitioners by means of Chinese methods.

Among those doctors whose instruction had not blinded them to the reality of facts, a certain number wondered if it would not be useful and wise to study with the aid of the accurate instruments of Europe, and according to modern laboratory principles, the effects of Chinese medicine either with needles and moxas or through poisons.

These savants experimented for years either treating patients in clinics and hospitals, keeping them under observation, taking blood tests, analysis, etc. or experimenting on animals to be sacrificed for the results required.

Everyone knows more or less what is the Chinese method of needles and moxas.

To cure all sickness without an ascertained disorder and to aid the human body in its natural work of recuperation from ascertained disorders, the Chinese, from the early ages (the oldest existing book is attributed to the 28th. century B. C.) insert just under the skin, hardly a few milimeters deep, a very fine metal needle at certain circumscribed points (of which there are about eight hundred on the body): it is known as Acupuncture.

From early ages, in certain cases (particularly that of weakness, old age or chill etc.) a cone of armosine powder (*artemisia sinensis*) as large as grains of corn and which is as inflammable as lycopodium powder has been used. This is the "tsiou" (pronounced in Japanese Kyu; the name in Japanese is Mogusa from which the Dutch in the 17th. century derived the name Moxa). Im-

portance is attached to this armosine. The use of Moxas constitutes moxibustion.

In North China, a dry and enervating country, needles are particularly favored.

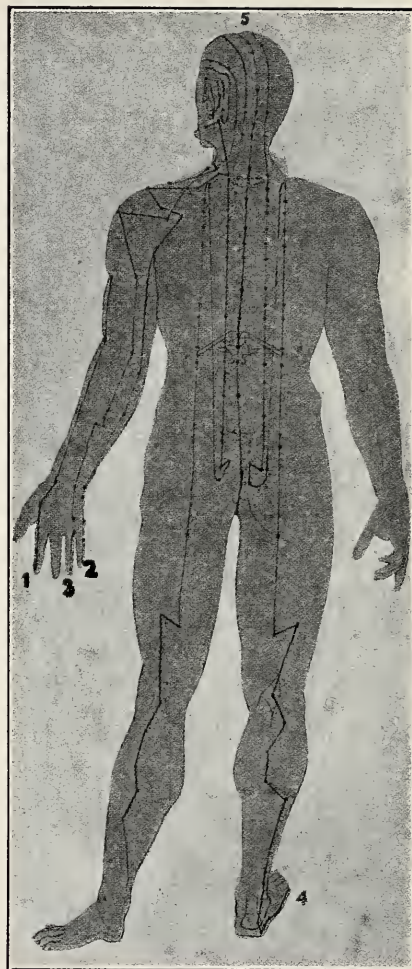
In Japan, a damp country with lightly constructed houses, where sickness caused by humidity is frequent, moxas were favored so that the needle, although always in use, took second place. To avert blisters and scars numerous methods were studied, especially that of a stick of agglomerated armosine, red hot as a tinder and applied over sheets of paper, more or less numerous, according to the sensibility of the patient. Recently an apparatus has been made and is sold in shops, to prevent burns and scars.

Such is the material idea of "Moxibustion" through Moxas and "Acupuncture" through needles.

One more term should be explained— "meridian" (Keiraku in Japanese, Tsing lo in Chinese)—they are lines not imaginary but real (although not corresponding entirely to the courses of nerves, arteries or others) uniting points. They are real because the greater number of sick people say when a point is stimulated that they feel something pass along a line which they show with their finger. Nothing corresponding to it has yet been found in the teaching of anatomy. Each of these "meridians" responds to an organ in this sense, that the sick organ makes the meridian points sensitive and these, irritated, have an influence on the organ.

We have already said that medicine in Japan was Chinese prior to 1884. History relates nothing of the actual origin of this science in Japan.

In the early ages the names of O. Anamuchi and Sukunakikona



Meridians of the Body.

## Front

1. Meridian of the lung.
2. Meridian of the pericardium.
3. Meridian of the heart.
4. Meridian of the spleen.
5. Meridian of the liver.
6. Meridian of the stomach.
7. Meridian of the gall-bladder.
9. Meridian of the kidneys.
10. Jenn-Mo.

## Back

1. Meridian of the large intestine.
2. Meridian of the small intestine.
3. Meridian of the three constrictors.
4. Meridian of the bladder.
5. Meridian of the Toumo.



aré recorded. In 443 A. D. doctors came from Korea (where Chinese medicine flourished) at the demand of Emperor Inkyo. In 608 Emperor Suiko sent a number of doctors to China to study medical science in the Capital of the illustrious dynasty of Trang.

From the 7th. to the 18th. century Japanese students were frequently sent to China and there was a constant development of Chinese medicine in Japan.

It should not be taken however that Japanese doctors did not consider the special conditions of their country, race and climate and that they obeyed Chinese precepts to the letter. There is a distinct Japanese medical science although it is based on Chinese works. So we find that Moxas are dominant in Japan, needles in China.

In the 18th. century, the Dutch brought European medicine and the Japanese with their innate taste for novelty, immediately saw the difference of methods. They studied with enthusiasm, but a clearsighted enthusiasm, for Mitani Koki, in the work he published about that time on European anatomy remarks:

"Western physicians, in proportion as they studied deeply, have strayed from the real goal of their research... their study of the human body only concerns the dead body and does not give information as to the reaction of the living, the only object of our studies".

In 1884 a law demanded that doctors of the Tokio Faculty obtain a diploma for their European studies, on the presentation of which a permit to practise their profession would be given.

The studies were directed chiefly by Germans, whose minute science and its beneficial results had been recognized by the delegation which

had been sent to Europe for this purpose.

Old practitioners were given special licences the idea was to impose European methods.

Let it be stated at once that the Chinese method could not be suppressed. In the first place the Emperor and his family had retained their physician, a renowned man, Dr. Asada; moreover a large number of men practising Chinese methods were young in 1884; many of them are still living and their students were numerous.

The new physicians practising European methods, although proud of their European diploma, could not deny the success of Chinese methods which had saved their relatives from much sickness. When they saw European methods fail in some cases where Chinese methods could effect a cure, they did not hesitate either to order an acupuncture, about which they knew through books always on sale, or to send the patients to a practitioner of the old school. Several studied even and practised the old science.

## WHAT IS CHINESE MEDICINE?

This method is as old as the Chinese and Japanese races—that is to say it has a pre-historic origin but we will leave its history to historians and concern ourselves with medicine alone, especially from a practical point of view—the only one of interest to the sick—the cure.

Is it possible that ancient Chinese medicine can be really a science? That is a disturbing question. To the modern world it has no scientific appearance. On the contrary it is clothed in mystical, prehistoric pat-



ina and seems, at times, incomprehensible. Yet it cannot be denied when one knows its great healing efficacy.

In the literal sense of the word it is not considered scientific but is Western medicine itself truly scientific, such as we shall examine it later?

As a matter of fact Chinese medicine is a practical method based on In-Yo (doctrine of inn and iang), a philosophical principle perfected by the first Emperors of the Chinese at least five thousand years ago and dominating all science of the Far-East.

This method has as its principal aim the suppression of medicine, while freeing mankind as completely as possible from sickness. If by its means the sickness cannot be cured once and for all, the cure is considered incomplete.

To attain this end its first ideal is "*mens sana in corpore sano*" (a sound mind in a sound body) and it teaches the practical means to realize this desire. Its second ideal is no less important: "cure the sickness to come". Its third ideal, considered the least complicated, is "cure the sickness which has manifested itself".

The first is considered the most difficult to attain, the second less difficult and the third the easiest.

I must leave the two first aims aside as they are too far at the moment from the conception of modern Western medicine.

The West is decidedly the antipode not only geographically but also mentally, of the Far East. Medicine is one example in thousands of this contrast. It is analytical and specialized in the West, whereas in the Far East it is syncretical to the point of becoming a social and national rule, extending

even to the salvation of humanity.

The conception of Western medicine corresponds approximately to the third part—the least important—of Chinese medicine. Comparison will be made exclusively with the third part.

Although omitting the historical account of Chinese medicine I must say a few words about its decadence and its recent resurrection in Japan as these facts show its real value.

China was the land in which Chinese medicine reigned for over five thousand years. Japan has profited by this science for thirteen hundred years.

The invasion of Western civilization in the Far East which began about sixty years ago, destroyed this glorious domination of old Chinese medicine and wrested its colony from it—Japan. About forty years ago, a wellknown tyrannical law prohibited its teaching in our islands.

At the present moment China is trying to re-establish the old supremacy of Chinese medicine. A very important part of the former method has been brought back officially.

Such is not the case officially in Japan where, by the way, many physicians with Chinese methods disappeared forty years ago. A curious fact is that modern physicians, the conquerors of traditional practitioners, have recently begun to add to their signs two words: "Chinese Doctor" or "Chinese Method".

In a word the Japanese are about to give recognition to the superiority of the medical method recently pursued and suppressed.

What is the precise value of the old method? Its superiority is undeniably in therapeutics.

Many already condemn Western medicine—it is even accused of being the murderer of humanity. On the contrary, patients of Chinese

doctors augment constantly and this to a considerable extent in the case of specialists of physical therapeutics (needles and moxas), the efficacy of which is immediate and the application of which, always harmless, does not introduce poisons into the system, the effects of which are uncertain.

European medicine had, as a matter of fact, several aspects for us: for instance, anatomy and surgical operations were unknown to Chinese medicine as it does not require them, possessing internal therapeutics which render all operations and even anatomy useless. But the rank and file did not understand that. New chemical medicines of the West had a magic charm in the eyes of the naive Japanese with their thirst for everything new. The medicines were less bulky, fine as powder, and their effect seemed to be more active than the so-called "natural" Chinese medicines, which are only roots and chopped herbs.

In this way, the West at this point exercised its ascendancy in Japan. Today, time and experience have opened their eyes. They are returning to old methods.

## THEORY OF CHINESE MEDICINE

Chinese medicine seems absurd and ridiculous to those who believe the construction of European medicine, composed of very specialized sciences, to be solid.

Chinese anatomy seems too childish for modern brains. Chinese physiology and pathology, which are completely philosophical, seem incomprehensible in their principles. At the present moment the whole

world considers the theoretical part of Chinese medicine absurd and as something that cannot be utilized.

But this theory, as I said before, is only a derivative of In-Yo (doctrine of inn and of iang), the real law which explains and governs all science. This antique philosophy speaks a symbolical language, simple and deep. From its foundation, more than five thousand years ago, it has sought and studied the unique principle, the law which governs all science, the principle which can be applied to every state and to all phenomena. This principle is In-Yo which can be a guide and rule for every science.

I do not know if Western science is seeking today a unique law, I do not think so as it seems too specialized, too analytical, to contemplate a whole. It has no simple and powerful principle to unite and guide all the divers sciences, the ramifications of which are constantly multiplied. In-Yo in any case is a philosophy quite unknown in Europe. It is extremely subtle and deep. It is said to "understand all" from the early ages. But it is too symbolical and too vast in its application. Its study has been too long neglected. It is still spoken of as the "sacred source" of the wisdom of humanity, but the spirit and the key to it has been lost. That is the reason one despises the theory of Chinese medicine which is one of the numerous applications of this law of In-Yo (inn-iang); this disregard, it seems, shows up the weakness and lack of intelligence of the people of modern times.

To understand Chinese medicine perfectly, this philosophy must be understood, arrayed in its prehistoric patina. It is too complicated to be discussed here. Extensive information on the subject can be obtained

by reading a book written in French by my friend and colleague, Dr. Sakurazawa: "*Unique Principle of Philosophy and of the Science of the Far East*" (J. Vrin, Paris).

In-Yo (inn-iang) explains the system of the universe by two opposite activities, In (inn) and Yo (iang). Properly speaking it is not at all a dualism but a relativity. All particular science, all art, all Far-Eastern ideas are only parts, or rather In-Yo (inn-iang) can be applied in its entirety to every phenomenon, to every state of the world, to the universe as to the atom.

I will try here to give a slight idea of an infinitesimal part of this law, and this only to explain briefly the backing it gives to the practice of therapeutics.

Applied to medicine, this unique law is based on the existence of two antagonistic activities, In (inn) and Yo (iang) in all physiological phenomena. The In, inclination to rest, heaviness, cold, damp, matter, etc.; the Yo, inclination to lightness, dry, heat, activity, the incorporeal.

According to In-Yo, which is ancient energy, all is composed of cosmic energy which the activities In (inn) and Yo (iang) represent. From the atom to the universe, matter and motion, human beings—all are merely an agglomeration of these two activities In (inn) and Yo (iang).

This unique principle says to us:

"The universe is the oscillation of two activities In (inn) and Yo (iang) and its vicissitudes".

Beings and phenomena which are produced in the universe are the multiple and complex masses of the substance Taikyoku (traé tsi), or cosmic energy full of two activities In (inn) and Yo (iang) in their proportions.

Beings and phenomena are in reality dynamic balance in divers forms. Nothing is stable nor finite in the universe. All is in perpetual motion, because the action of two activities, which is the source of being, is without beginning or end.

Now, the activity In and the activity Yo attract one another. Nothing is absolute In nor absolute Yo. Both are only relatively characterised. All is an aggregate of In and Yo. Nothing is neuter. Their action and charges are incessant and universal.

As for man, he depends upon his surroundings, he is a product of them, he is merely a transformation of his surroundings. Our body consumes energy at the expense of carbon introduced in the various forms of food. Cells, units of our constitution, are self-destroyed and ceaselessly reproduced, always through the means of food. Organic evolution is the middle cycle across our body. Our body, our life, is only a Niagara of elements across the cellular substance.

The internal substance as well as the external is but an aggregate of In and Yo which ceaselessly augments or diminishes relatively.

It is evident that a lack of balance of these two activities is easily produced in the course of this colloid waterfall. Such is the source of all sickness.

Sickness is a lack of balance more or less grave which has risen between In and Yo.

There are several means of annulling this lack of balance. The means are very simple—at least in principle: it is a case of diminishing that which is charged with an excess of one activity or of augmenting whichever shows an insufficiency of either activity.



All chemical elements drawn from the substance, either in the form of food or medicine, with the cooperation of physical agents and factors, which are also the result of the combination of In and Yo in their intimate nature, constitute healing methods, independently or in collaboration with one another. Such is the principle of Chinese internal therapeutics.

The principle of external therapeutics or exclusively physical, massage, acupuncture, ignipuncture or moxas, etc. based on In and Yo as in internal treatment, brings still other means into action. Sickness, being a lack of equilibrium caused by the one activity or the other, two fundamental categories are distinguished: the sickness Yo by reason of too much Yo substance, and the sickness In by reason of too much In substance.

In other words, each substance has two contrary varieties. For instance, the shortsightedness Yo is that in which the crystalline is enlarged and rounded through too many Yo elements constricting (and constructing) whereas shortsightedness In is that in which the eye is flattened and lengthened through an excess of In elements, dilator (and destructive). These two kinds of shortsightedness are, from the point of view of cause, quite opposed to one another, consequently the treatment differs too.

Without this fundamental difference there would be no exact therapeutics. Thus it is that the same X-ray treatment can ameliorate one case of cancer and aggravate another.

This explains the inevitable uncertainty of Western medicine, which in that way shows that it is unscientific as it does not consider realities.

All treatment and all healing methods are also divided into two categories In and Yo, the former cure of the Yo sicknesses and the latter those of In, not by contending with the superfluous element but by increasing the lacking element.

Sickness is considered lack of balance, an unnatural state. Medicine is the science to reestablish normal equilibrium by applying whatever is lacking. The lack of balance must never be augmented by the expedient of therapeutics. Medicine of the Far East has no combative idea.

Now, what is the activity Yo or In?

The activity Yo is the constructive force. (In China it is the constructive element of life, activity, growth, intellectual and moral life, energy).

The activity In is the dilative force. (In China it is the element of rest and death, physical life pending to destruction, to diminution; it is blood). Speaking in a chemical sense the activity Yo is represented by the element Na, sodium; and the activity In by the element K, potassium.

All elements in their own activity possess the activities Yo or In.

Gravity, weight, central force are names which designate constrictive force—the activity Yo. In China it is said that the energy Yo descends from the stars.

The ascensional power, the expanding force designate dilatory force—the activity In.

Heat is a physical product of the action of centripetal force, constrictive, Yo; while cold is only a result produced by the action of the dilatory force In.

This relation K/Na is the only controller which dictates to us the



choice and the use of all Chinese medicines.

Chinese medicine is far superior to that of the West in its therapeutics with needles and moxas, prehistorical cures but extremely practical and simple, even for Westerners.

It is independent of and at the same time is complementary to medicines in the science of Medicine. One can use it without the slightest knowledge of the In and Yo theory, although a knowledge of it is a valuable aid. It is simple in principle and practice, consequently is accessible to all.

One can hardly imagine its efficacy. It is not costly, demands no particular skill, no complicated apparatus dangerous or cumbersome, nor any special installation. It injects no poison into the system. Of what does it consist?

It is stimulation acting upon a certain system called Keiraku (in Chinese meridians and secondary vessels), the real circulation of energy in our body. This stimulation is aroused by burning a pharmaceutical vegetable substance or by injecting needles of different metals.

The principles of moxibustion and acupuncture are well explained in the book *Somon Reisu* by the Emperor Roang-ti. (Emperor Roang-ti 2597-2596 B. C. during whose reign copper was discovered in China and the first metal needles replaced the old stone ones then used in acupuncture). It is impossible to translate this book into modern European languages and for those who are ignorant of In-Yo. If In-Yo is not understood—the only principle of the philosophy and science of the Far East—one cannot grasp the deep truth of the age-old method.

Besides one would never understand the superiority of moxibustion

and acupuncture through the study of a book. To realize it the method must be put into practice.

Thanks to the serious study of the Japanese for many centuries, moxibustion and acupuncture, as well as Chinese science and Indian teachings have been very much developed and perfected in Japan. The important points and meridians have been carefully determined by the Japanese and they have found action in connection with certain points which were unknown to the Chinese.

Not only have the methods of moxibustion and acupuncture been developed and determined in Japan, but modern apparatuses have been invented to do away with both the more or less painful burns of the skin and scars in moxibustion and the pain sometimes caused by needles.

It is due to these inventions that one is able to practise moxibustion or acupuncture at home, minus all danger, painlessly, and to prove that they produce immediate results and moreover that it is the least expensive medical system in the world; besides the superiority of this physical cure, practised for more than five thousand years, can be easily verified.

I am going to try now to explain the theory of moxibustion and acupuncture, although I can only do so very superficially.

## ACUPUNCTURE

The needles, whether they be of gold, silver, iron, chrome or other metal, are, according to In-Yo elements charged with activities In, they consequently have a very

„inn” influence on our system—so-called Sya (in Chinese superficial) that is, dilatory, centrifugal, of relaxation, of calm, through the system “Keiraku” (meridians). They restore cells and organs by imparting the stimulation “inn”.

Acupuncture is consequently recommended for all excess of Yo (iang) but through the Yo equilibrium which it gives to the organism it restores the energy In and imparts indirectly favorable results to In sickness as well as its direct stimulating action on the In.

According to modern physiology, stimulation of this sort must be felt in the entire nervous system, including nervous centers.

The hypothesis set forth on the action of moxibustion and described below can be equally applied to the method of needles.

To understand acupuncture scientifically, one must not only gain a thorough understanding of the nervous system and the intimate nature of all nervous activity and vital energy, but also of general physiology and cosmic energy. Unfortunately, modern science is not perfected to the point of imparting this knowledge. So we must wait patiently for a so-called scientific explanation of acupuncture which will perhaps permit us to set forth and state exactly the beneficial results to be obtained by relying on old theories.

## MOXIBUSTION

Many Japanese savants have busied themselves for a long time with the scientific study of moxibustion. They were led to its study through the remarkable efficacy demonstrat-

ed in instantaneous cures of patients who were old clients and in whom Western methods had failed to effect a cure.

Dr. Hara, one of these savants, explained recently, after several years' intense study, laboratory tests demonstrate that moxibustion increases the number of red globules and haemoglobine. Needles have the same effect. (Difference in the increase of 500,000 red globules within the space of several hours have been proved in Europe as the result of one single treatment of acupuncture).

Another savant stresses the psychological efficacy of moxibustion and needles.

It is undeniable that all pain is attenuated when moxibustion or needles have been applied to the requisite points.

Another dwells on peculiar arterial congestion caused by this method.

Yet another savant voices an entirely different hypothesis. According to his views, the efficacy of the method rests in a strong acceleration of the circulation through increasing arterial contraction which would wipe out all pathological phenomena.

(Experience and observation have shown that, particularly in the case of needles, the increase of tension is not an essential accompaniment of injections or moxibustion, except when they are applied to special points whose work is to increase tension) (Translator's Note).

One doctor, who has published very interesting results of his serious scientific studies on the subject, concludes that the effect of moxibustion results from albuminoïd which is produced by the burning of moxa (pharmaceutical armosine cotton) on the skin, such as that

produced in any ordinary case of burns. This has led to the conclusion that the "Keiraku" (meridians) points can be ignored, this albuminoid being a product of the burn and depending on no point. In this case the effects admitted by everyone of the meridian point would be ignored.

All these theories or hypotheses are correct from a scientific standpoint, but they are only small parts of the one truth which is as follows in moxibustion:

Moxibustion which is based on heat is "iang" in nature. It is highly recommended for all sickness through an excess of "inn". Energetic activity of the blood, albuminoid production, congestion, etc. are all of the "iang" nature.

There are moreover other infinitely numerous healing factors in moxibustion and acupuncture which evade analytical eyes.

As moxibustion is a physical healing factor of the "iang" nature, it must be used to cure cases with an excess of "inn". Moxibustion, however, being in fact physical stimulation, it revives also in a general way all physiological functions: metabolism, the activity of white corpuscles, that of the nervous and physical centers. So it is as well as a physical healing stimulant, equally favourable and efficacious in disturbances of the "iang" nature.

Moxibustion of old was very painful and often left scars. Research culminated in the construction of an apparatus sold in most shops affording painless moxibustion and leaving no scar. The apparatus is a kind of inverted incense burner, on a bakelite base which is fastened by a strap to the required spot of a limb. The burning of the moxa can be regulated

by the patient himself through several ventilation holes, as great heat is more or less tolerable according to individual and racial sensibility or habit.

## MERIDIANS AND POINTS

Let us observe what is meant by the term "Keiraku", "Meridians".

Meridians form a system which distribute themselves, just as the nerves, from which they are different, over the entire surface of our body. They unite more than 300 important bilateral points, plus the unilateral, namely 800, which are merely receiving and sending stations of all our internal organs. By stimulating one of these points, one can treat directly the corresponding internal organ. The points remain in fact mysterious, modern physiology ignores their mechanism. To ancient China they were points of emersion of the subterranean current which is our circulation of energy. Certain of them correspond to the "fatal spots" of Jiu-jitsu. The point called "Kusagakure" in Jiu-jitsu corresponds to the point "Rinkyu" of Chinese healing. The Samourai gives a sharp blow to this point to paralyze the corresponding part of his enemy's body.

The "inn-iang" method of healing strictly prohibits moxibustion and acupuncture at this point, maintaining that a serious operation on this point causes a fatal stimulation to the bile and extreme pain.

The point "Sanri" on the arm is a very important point in moxibustion for the cure of anthrax and bad abscess. Moxibustion on this point instantaneously cures pain and heals with extraordinary rapidity.



Jiu-jitsu teaches it to be a useful spot to paralyze the enemy's arm and to disarm him. A fairly violent blow on "Sanri" is enough to render one unconscious.

"San 'inko" which is on the inside of the leg is an important point in moxibustion, the stimulation brought to it reacts on the kidneys, spleen and liver.

"Yusen" which is on the soles of the feet replaces the point "Sanri". There are 4 or 5 of such points. "Yusen" is the receiver of the healing stimulant of kidney diseases.

Eye troubles are cured through moxibustion at the point "Tyokai", in front of the ear.

Moxibustion at "Tyokai" and at the same time at "Kengai" which is at the shoulders acts as a cure for Trachoma.

As a cure for acute or chronic orchitis, moxibustion is performed at "Yoti", on the back of the hand on the side of the sickness.

Many others of these points have been renowned for their extraordinary efficacy from the early ages.

A fact which may appear incredible is that the blood is modified by moxibustion and needles. After the first treatment the difference is hardly noticeable, but through controlled moxibustion, more or less long, the blood is transformed to an important extent.

Needles produce more rapid results as the appropriate points for them are few.

Through daily moxibustion at ten points (the place is indifferent), it has been proved that when the moxibustion was discontinued, the quantity of haemoglobine, as well as the number of red globules, had increased regularly and forcibly. The blood resumes its pre-operation condition only after 22 weeks.

With needles the result seems to be attained, but the points must be scrupulously chosen.

A curious and interesting thing is that a definite dose of moxas has been found. In a male subject a treatment of moxibustion is given regularly for one week a month for 18 months at 48 given points. The quantity of haemoglobine of this subject augmented 90 % and remained the same. After 18 months, at the request of the subject the points of moxibustion were reduced from 48 to 11 and the length of each treatment by 30 %. Following this change, a new increase of haemoglobine was noted which from then on exceeded 100 %.

This increase in quantity of the haemoglobine of the blood does not consist of an increase in haemoglobine for every red globule, but shows itself in the increase of number of red globules.

Now what influence has the increase of haemoglobine on our body? It corresponds beyond any doubt to better nutrition, better metabolism, and a better functioning of all the organs.

So it can be proved that moxibustion or needles, through physical stimulation and through its repercussion on the whole system of circulation, increase the quantity of the haemoglobine as well as the number of red globules. This action can be likened to two parallel curves. The increase of white corpuscles is analogous to that of red globules.

The cure of tuberculosis, thanks to the increase of haemoglobine, red globules and white corpuscles, is the most important progress attained through the serum rendered harmless by moxibustion and needles. This fact and the development of immunization of white corpuscles



have been explained by several of our confrères.

The cure of tubercular subjects through acupuncture is a fact and known since ancient times. Moxibustion was considered a prophylactic national defence. All Japanese, old as well as young, never missed one treatment a month for life and that was practised until European civilization was imported. Now that the results of moxas are recognized, we must take up our old traditions. Those who are fearsome need only buy the latest instruments permitting of moxibustion without a burn, or pain, thanks to modern inventions.

To conclude, it should be remembered that the preventive and curative efficacy of moxas is not entirely and exclusively limited to the production of aseptic serum and to the increase of haemoglobine and red globules and white corpuscles. That is only a small part of the

results obtained by needles and moxas.

Not mentioning the increase of arterial pressure (from 5 to 22 mm. in a man, from 10 to 100 in animals), a large number of physical and chemical phenomena are to be noted for study: variation of elasticity and of muscular contraction, production of heat, variation of stimulation, of the conductivity of the nerves; variation of retroaction; production of electricity, as well as general phenomena of life.

These aspects observed scientifically of the results of needles and moxas must quite rightly hold the attention of specialists.

Let us remember from what has already been studied, that this method constitutes above all a simple physical stimulant, that it is easily applied, with immediate results and presents no danger. This can be said of few medical methods.

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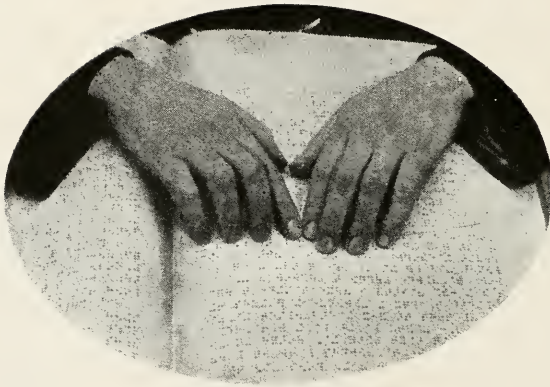
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By EDWARD S. PARSONS

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"A book was writ of late"—so says the poet, Milton, of one of his controversial pamphlets. Another book has been "writ of late", a unique book, about the same poet's major affliction and handicap, which became to him a stepping stone to his greatest achievement. This is the volume, Milton's Blindness, which has just been issued by the Columbia University Press. Its uniqueness consists in the fact that it is the work of a blind woman,

probably the first so handicapped to win the Doctor of Philosophy degree from any university not only in America but in the world; and also that for the first time Milton's blindness has been thoroughly investigated and interpreted by one who was able to study the poet and his work with the fullest comprehension and sympathy, with an insight born of a like experience.

One has only to know something of the life history of this blind



student, Miss Eleanor Gertrude Brown of Dayton, Ohio, to feel the same kind of thrill which the story of Helen Keller's victory over circumstances always awakens.

Miss Brown is one of those whose eyes might have been saved had the physician who assisted at her birth had the modern knowledge of how a newly born baby's eyes should be treated. When a few days afterward a specialist was called in it was too late. Up to eleven years of age she could see light, could detect colors like the green of the grass and the yellow of the dandelions, but she could not distinguish form and she never could read. After her eleventh year all was dark.

She was a sickly child. She had brain and spinal fever at three years of age and had two serious attacks of St. Vitus dance after one of which she was almost completely paralyzed. She had many accidents, once falling down the cellar stairs, and being taken up as dead.

But in the intervals between illnesses she was happy and active, thoroughly enjoying the experiences and opportunities which were within her reach. She early developed independence, her mother having to help in the support of the family by working in the grandfather's restaurant. The blind girl learned early to go everywhere inside and outside the house. She had a sister six years older than herself but her constant companion was a little boy, a neighbor with whom she roamed about the small town, rode a bicycle and a pony, walked fences, and did many other things natural to a normal child but seemingly impossible to one who was blind.

She had a very active mind. Before school was thought of for her she learned all her sister's

school pieces. She was a poor sleeper and often when she and her sister would go to bed together she would tease for poems and stories, and when her sister fell asleep she would wake her up to have her go on. When she was five she grew eager to go to school herself, and the doctor knowing how frail she was and feeling certain that she had only a short time to live, agreed it was best to humor her and so by special arrangement with the principal—five years being earlier by two or three years than the age at which pupils were generally received—she was admitted to the Ohio State School for the Blind. She had been there only a few months when she had the second attack of St. Vitus dance and was seriously ill for many weeks. She slept in a padded bed and when she first got about again it was in a baby buggy. She remained at home for more than a year and then reentered the school. She remained there fourteen years. The Superintendent, Mr. Edward M. Van Cleve, now head of the Institute for the Education of the Blind in New York City, and others of the staff, became her very warm friends. Without their constant and wise aid even her indomitable will and perseverance could have hardly carried her to the point she has now reached.

One of these teachers first remembers her as a stocky little girl of ten, happy and mischief-loving, but satisfactory in her studies, though not brilliant, popular with her schoolmates, always busy, but never seeming to be hurried. She was proficient in the use of her hands, early learning to do beadwork, making baskets, napkin rings, necklaces. She was fond of crotchet and knitting, one of her

great resources in later years. She had much musical ability, and a good but not strong voice. She was a great reader, one of the constant applicants at the library for "another good story", of which the school possessed many in braille.

She was a hero-worshiper—a characteristic which has persisted. Her child's devotion expressed itself in gifts, in offers to run errands, in letters. These attachments, many of them, grew into lasting friendships at the center of which always remained her grateful remembrance of the earlier days.

She lived through a large part of her residence at the School for the Blind with four other girls like herself of her own age. Their room was outstanding for order and initiative. The girls saved their pennies and bought and made cheesecloth curtains for their windows. Occasionally they would give parties for their teachers. When they were about fourteen they asked permission which was gladly granted, to form what they called the Carpe Diem Club for literary and parliamentary practice and also to give them information and experience in social conventions of the better type, that they might be the better fitted for the time when they should have to separate and mingle with the outside world. In this club Eleanor Brown was at all times an active though not a conspicuous member, contributing a quiet but very real leadership. It is interesting to note that of the other four girls who roomed together one has a degree in Education from the University of Cincinnati and taught several summer terms at the Kent, Ohio, State Normal School, later marrying; another, since dead, became a practical nurse specializing in massage; a

third is holding a responsible position in a Cleveland bank, doing secretarial work, using the dictaphone and the typewriter; the fourth was for years employed by the Dayton Cash Register Company.

When Eleanor was about eleven she decided to enter a contest sponsored by the Columbus (Ohio) Citizen which offered a prize of two dollars for the best short story written by a child under twelve. It was an event of great importance to her when she won the prize and her picture appeared in the paper with an account of her life at the school and she received her first taste of self-earned money and individual fame. It helped to change a sensitive, somewhat self-depreciating blind girl into a person who believed in herself and who formed the resolve to deserve and keep the lead she had won.

Just as Eleanor was entering the High School department of the School for the Blind at the age of fifteen or sixteen, her mother and grandfather having died, she was offered a permanent residence at Clovernook Home for the Blind, founded by the Misses Trader and occupying the house near Cincinnati that had been the home of Alice and Phoebe Cary. To take advantage of this rare opening, a settled home with other blind girls engaged in the usual handicrafts, Eleanor would have had to leave the School without getting her high school diploma or going further with her education. She had no home to go to after graduation and no prospects for employment; but she decided she could not give up her studies and settle down for the rest of her life in a home however pleasant. It took courage and willingness to face difficulties and even hardships to make such a

decision, but after years were to prove its wisdom.

So she completed her high school course at the School. It being imperative now that she get some work to support herself, she went to Dayton where she had relatives but none able to help her, and secured work in a paper box factory. Her wages were meagre but out of these she paid her board, clothed herself and saved a little month by month. At the end of a little more than two years she appeared one morning at the School for the Blind, and seeking out the Superintendent she told him she had saved ninety-five dollars and she wanted to take this money, matriculate at Ohio State University, and study till her money was exhausted. Then she would go back to work and save more for more study. She asked if he could help her by allowing her board and room at the School. Greatly touched, he gave her the permission.

She entered the University two months late; the School for the Blind was not on the accredited list; she was the first blind woman to matriculate, and it was seriously doubted, too, if she could succeed. She was admitted finally as a special student on probation and allowed to take three studies.

It was several miles from the School for the Blind to Ohio State University. She went back and forth on the street cars each day to her classes, going alone, getting on at the corner next to the School, and getting off near the University entrance where, at first, interested friends, met her and took her to her class room. Soon the University girls going the same way would watch for her and see that she did not go astray. Some text books and supplementary reading

were to be found in the raised print to be read with the fingers, but not nearly enough. So she was obliged to hire readers. Her money was rapidly melting away when the Ohio State Lantern, then a campus weekly, published an account of her and of the work she was trying to do. One of the Columbus city newspapers re-told the story and the Dayton papers became interested. Soon she began to have offers of help. President Thompson, finding she was an able student and in earnest, gave her some scholarship aid. The Columbus and the Dayton Women's Clubs and also the Alumnae Club of Ohio State University loaned her money, and a friend in Dayton saw to it that during the four college years she was well and fittingly clothed. During the last year of her course the legislature passed a law, really having her in mind, granting a small allowance to blind students at the University for employment of readers. The quality of her work was such that soon after her matriculation she was released from probation, and her credits from the School for the Blind were accepted in full. After spending three and a half years at the University she received the Bachelor of Arts degree with the class with which she entered, President Thompson making special mention of her achievement before the great audience assembled for the Commencement exercises.

To one of those whose warm generous interest made Miss Brown's attainment possible she has dedicated her book in the following words: "Some one once asked Kingsley what was the secret of his strong, joyous life, and he answered, "I had a friend".

At this point a dramatic chapter



in her life opened. She had been given a pension of \$150.00 a year from the state as a blind adult without other income. But of course this was not enough to support her. The School for the Blind was very eager to secure an opportunity for one of its students to try out the possibilities of high school teaching. Through the untiring efforts of its Superintendent, a place was opened for Miss Brown in the Steele High School of Dayton and she began work there the September after her graduation from the University. Her appointment was frankly an experiment; it was for six months only and was wholly approved by only a very few and opposed by many. She was given the subjects of Latin, German and English and later on History. She was called at first a "coach" teacher, but from the beginning she had regular work.

Those six months were full of trying experiences. She felt very much alone after the cordial relationships of the School and the University. She had difficulties with discipline, and had to meet the incredulity of school officials. She was burdened, too, with the realization that if she failed no other blind person would have the chance to try. That period of probation began twenty years ago. After the difficult beginning days she quickly won out. The problem of discipline she solved in most straight-forward fashion. She called her class together one day and simply asked for a square deal; all she wanted was that they would refrain from doing what she could not see. The response was immediate. She had no more difficulty. Her classes became more and more sought after by pupils; those who had been under her direction did

her credit when passed on to other teachers. Any pupils who attempted to put anything over on her soon discovered their mistake. She made friends with her co-workers, depending on them not at all but meeting them on their own ground, and soon those who were opposed to her becoming one of the staff completely reversed their attitude. At the present time she carries her full share of the faculty responsibility. From year to year she has received with the others well-earned increases in salary. Her pension ceased when she became self-supporting but with what she earned she paid off little by little the money she had accepted and used during her college days besides helping financially many of her less successful friends.

After having tried boarding under many conditions she acquired an attractive apartment near the Dayton high school building. From her training at the School for the Blind, she was quite capable of doing her own domestic work, and she became mistress of a most pleasant and hospitable home where her many friends especially those who were blind loved to come and share in the society of herself and her companionable dog. She usually had a needy high school girl to live with her and be her guide to and from the school. She always employed a reader to go over her text books with her, to read to her the examination papers for her grading—in short to handle that part of the mechanics of her teaching which she could not take care of herself.

One would think that such an achievement would have satisfied a person with so serious a handicap as Miss Brown's. But hers is an eager, adventurous nature, seeking in the realm of the mind and the spirit the



experiences of which in other fields she has been deprived by loss of sight. So after her debts had been paid and she had taught a number of years she decided to take a summer's work at Columbia. She became so interested that she saved ahead, got a year's leave of absence from teaching and took up work at Columbia for the Master's degree. She worked so hard, supplementing her meagre resources with the sale of knitted goods of her own make, and she took so little rest, that she paid the penalty by a breakdown and months of illness. But even then she was not discouraged, but went ahead and in due time received the coveted degree.

But still she had not reached the peak of her scholarly ambition. She had discovered that the hard intellectual tasks that other students had successfully undertaken, unhandicapped by the loss of such a tool as eyesight, were not impossible to her. So she determined to make at least the attempt to secure the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. So after a summer or two at the University of Colorado she entered Columbia again. The story of her effort there cannot be told in detail. At one time she was utterly bewildered by the vastness of her task. Her reader had made notes on several thousand small cards the size of a post card which Miss Brown intended to reproduce in braille. It was essential that this be done so that she could bring her gathered material into logical order. But she was physically unequal to the labor involved. Fortunately at this juncture her old friend was able to secure for her the aid of the printer of the New York Institute for the Education of the Blind, himself a writer of braille, who copied her notes in such form that they could



Eleanor Gertrude Brown

be easily utilized in her writing.

From this time on her work went successfully forward. She was able to establish most cordial and friendly relationships with one of the leading ophthalmologists of New York City, Dr. Colman Cutler, with the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, and with the librarians in the city, and from these and other sources she received much encouragement and assistance in her study. These friends on their part felt she had given very much to them. Many of them have testified to their admiration for this handicapped woman who was making her way so heroically.

So her work went on to its completion, guided by the Milton scholar, Professor Frank A. Patterson, and by Professor Ashley H. Thorndike, to both of whom as well as to others she has expressed in the

preface of her book her deep debt of gratitude. It is a great sorrow to her that Professor Thorndike and also her old friend, the university president of her early scholastic struggles, Dr. W. O. Thompson, did not live to see the completion of the task in which they were so deeply interested. Even near the close of the work there was considerable doubt at Columbia whether it would be possible for her to pass such an examination and produce such a thesis as would entitle her to the degree. But at the end doubt changed to enthusiastic recognition not only of her ability but of her great achievement.

What about the book itself? Has it sufficient merit to justify the toil and painstaking and sacrifices that went into it? Only Milton scholars can fully appreciate the breadth and the thoroughness of Miss Brown's investigation or the uniqueness of her contribution to the solution of the main problem of her study. After they have given it the attention it deserves they will cordially welcome the author to their own circle as a most capable, sympathetic and discerning student of the poet's life and work.

There is space only for a hurried glimpse of some of the topics discussed. The careful review of medicine and hygiene in the Seventeenth Century with which the book opens issues in the conclusion that ophthalmic diagnosis, treatment and surgery being at that time so undeveloped, "it is not surprising that Milton went blind, or that the information which has come down to us concerning his eye trouble is...inadequate".

After assembling all the evidence in the poet's writings and elsewhere, and citing some of the fantastic views of the cause of the poet's blindness, she discusses at some

length the theory to which Saurat gave so much prominence, (1) that the cause was congenital syphilis. With the aid of some of the leading specialists in the field of ophthalmology and dermatology she proves conclusively that the history of Milton and his family and the symptoms in his own case as far as they are recorded do not point to syphilis either inherited or acquired. Her final conclusion is: "Of the causes presented above, streptococcic infection, glaucoma, and myopia and detachment of the retina are the most plausible. Yet in view of the limited information which has come down to us, ...the cause of Milton's blindness remains, and must remain, unsolved".

Miss Brown then turns to the autobiographical references to his blindness in the poet's works. And here begins her sympathetic interpretation of the poet from the standpoint of one who knows what blindness is. Of Sonnet XIX she says that she cannot read, without the deepest emotion, its expression of "submission to the inevitable, not without conflict and the sacrifice of some vital desire... experience known to every blinded person". In Sonnet XXII she finds "an exhibition of the self-assertiveness" natural to a blind person who has his work to do against public ignorance and prejudice. Sonnet XXIII is "a tender human experience, deep with feeling and enhanced by the realization that only in dreams and but for a moment, could Milton regain the sight that he had so courageously sacrificed".

In her study of the autobiographical passages in *Paradise Lost* and the prose writings, Miss Brown

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1. Saurat, Denis. *Milton: Man and Thinker*, Appendix A 329-41.

takes issue with such scholars as Professor Erskine who feel that in these references to his blindness Milton is making the deprivations of blindness the central theme. "No one", she says, "would deny that blindness has its deprivations. That it has compensations is recognized by every sightless person... It is, I believe, the thought of these benefits that he would leave with the reader". "It is not miserable to be blind", she continues... "It is *inconvenient*. The blind need to exert undue patience with reference to their affliction, since on account of their dependency, their lives are close knit with their helpers... The blind make the adjustment to their handicap perhaps as happily as any group of afflicted people. While blindness is not the lightest (burden), it appears heavier to the sighted world than to the blind themselves." "Through God's mercy Milton believed that he was able to count his blessings rather than his losses." "It is not so wretched to be blind", he wrote, "as it is not to be capable of enduring blindness".

"Why should I not bear a calamity", he wrote again, "to which every man's mind should be disciplined, on the contingency of its happening, to bear with patience?" And he adds: "How many things in fact, there are, which I should not wish to see!" a sentiment Miss Brown joins with words of Booth Tarkington: "It is hard for any one who has not been blind to realize what a thrill it is not to have to see everything".

In *Paradise Lost*, Miss Brown finds a mirror of the conflict in Milton "of self with self". To her Satan personifies the rebellion of soul which tore the inner life of the poet in the early days of his affliction. "He had lost much of his independence", a galling condition

for a sensitive and independent spirit like Milton to find himself in. To him "must have come moments of mental depression and despair". He was forced into inactivity, with "vigor of mind and body manacled by blindness". But he quickly won control of himself and his situation.

"What though the field be lost? All is not lost". And forced like Adam and Eve to leave the paradise of normal contact with the world and normal activity, he found at last that it was possible, even "happier far", to find "A Paradise within".

Miss Brown takes issue with the scholars who hold that *Samson Agonistes* is "a record of his (Milton's) deepest feelings at the most tragic point of his career"; that "Samson's impersonation of the author can escape no one". She frankly states, "It has escaped me". "There is no question", she says "that there are similarities between Milton and Samson". But the tragically defeated Samson has no counterpart in the Milton in whom persisted to the end "a temper unspoiled by tribulation". "Instead of being autobiographical... the speeches of Samson are what Milton's enemies, basing their knowledge upon the miserable blind, might say of the poet. The lines of the Chorus are sometimes more suggestive of Milton than those of Samson... It is as if Milton in answer to Samson's dejection and misery lends to the Chorus his own fortitude, faith, standards of right, and belief in the justice of God. If *Samson Agonistes*, therefore, is autobiographical, it is autobiographical only through the Chorus. Here we see Milton not defeated though blind, glorying in his affliction rather than complaining of it, and carrying on ceaselessly and in steadfast faith the work that he believed to be his."



It is in the closing chapters that Miss Brown draws most fully on her own experience to interpret the life and work of Milton. They cannot be abbreviated without serious loss. They need only to be read to be recognized as a most important contribution to an understanding of the man and the poet. She traces the process by which Milton accustomed himself to his new conditions and reestablished himself on the new basis of living. That his readjustment was thoroughly made is evidenced by the fact that "though blind, he continued indispensable to his government". "It cannot be by some accident that, when Cromwell wanted letters written in the highest strain... they should always have been supplied by Milton." (Masson) While he continued with the aid of readers his scholarly research, after his "loss of sight, the emphasis shifted from active preparation to creation". "With the Restoration, he withdrew from controversy and political activity, and returned once more to life as a conscious artist... I am inclined to believe that, if blindness had not come upon him, and if Charles II had not been restored to the throne, poetry might have been impoverished by the loss of some of Milton's greatest work."

Miss Brown closes her study of the effects of Milton's blindness with the statement that, though "it is not easy to determine the effects", and "the tendency has been due to attribute to his loss of sight many conditions which may have been due to other causes", a tendency due to the fact that many scholars "are not sufficiently acquainted with the true nature of blindness", yet it did deeply influence his life philosophically and spiritually. It brought about a change in his inter-

ests; it made him more subjective; it strengthened his memory; it developed his powers of concentration and so made more keen his other senses. She does not feel, as some do, that it increased his power of picturing the largest phenomena, or that it was "responsible for the selection of visual images in his later poetry" nor for "his choice of luminous and color adjectives". Neither is his extreme sensitiveness to criticism a product of his blindness, for that was apparent before the "irrecoverably dark, total eclipse" came.

In 1656, Milton wrote to his friend, Emeric Bigot: "I am glad to know that you are assured of my tranquility of spirit in this great affliction of loss of sight... Why, in truth, should I not bear gently the deprivation of sight when I may hope that it is not so much lost as revoked or retracted inwards, for the sharpening rather than the blunting of my mental edge". And in the letter to another friend, Philaras, two years earlier, he gives expression to the deeper conviction and consolation: "As long therefore as he (God) looks forward and provides for me as he does, and leads me backward and forward by the hand, as it were, through my whole life, shall I not cheerfully bid my eyes take holiday, since such appears to be his pleasure".

Miss Brown finds in these passages the key note of Milton's life and achievement, and, in the same spirit which animated the great poet, she adopts his words as her own: "I cheerfully bid my eyes take holiday" (2).

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2. An appendix contains a very extensive bibliography of books and articles alluding to or discussing Milton's blindness.



# THE DOCTRINE OF THE CATHOLIC CHURCH ON THE STERILIZATION OF ABNORMAL PEOPLE

By CANON PIERRE TIBERGHIEU, D. D.

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Before stating the view point of the catholic church concerning the sterilization of abnormal people, it might be appropriate to state briefly the position of the question at the present moment.

In the first place, the blind must know that they, at least certain categories of them, are very frequently classed as "abnormal", whom the State would have the right to deprive of the faculty of procreation. For instance, the German law promulgated on July 14th, 1933 deals expressly in Article 1 with the case of hereditary blindness.

In an Article of "*Mercure de France*" of February 1st, 1929, Mademoiselle Nisot exposes the opinion of Dr. Laughlin of the "Eugenics Record Office", whose works on sterilization, she says, are accepted as an authority in the United States: "The doctor would like to see all *socially inadequate classes* sterilized, and places in that category the weakminded, the mad, criminals, epileptics, drunkards, diseased (tubercular, syphilitic, lepers and other sick people victims of chronic and

infectious diseases), the blind (including those with a decided defective vision), the deaf (including those with an intense defective hearing), the deformed (including cripples), dependents (including orphans, homeless, vagabonds and poor). As can be seen, those who would, according to Laughlin, escape sterilization would constitute the minority" (p. 602).

This quotation shows how serious the problem appears. After admitting sterilization in some cases of extreme mental debility, it runs the risk of being extended to all sorts of cases. In this way its end cannot be foreseen, as now not only *eugenic* reasons are put forward, but *social* reasons. Mademoiselle Nisot quotes "the existing custom in certain Swiss communes to sterilize women even healthy ones, whose children are a public charge". This example demonstrates that certain categories of blind would be involved from this point of view.

One will easily arrive—and proposals have already been put forward—to sterilize en masse races

supposedly inferior, ethnical minorities said to be unassimilable, social classes considered useless... Certainly the point of view may vary, whether one be in America or China, in Nazis Germany or Soviet Russia, as someone is always considered abnormal by someone else.

The progress of medical science aids the development of propaganda in favour of sterilization. There is no necessity for surgical intervention as formerly; there is not even any apparent maiming; there will soon be no more mutilation at all as a few injections or even a few pills will suffice to maintain a sterility which would disappear when one ceased taking the medicine. It is far from being proved that such means would have no adverse influence on women's health and on the strength of children born after these periods of artificial sterilization.

Whatever may be the result, leagues are being organized for the diffusion of the practice of sterilization. Mr Jordan brought to notice recently in the monthly magazine "*Pour la Vie*" (March 1934) the creation in California of an Association "The Human Betterman Foundation", which has inundated the whole of Europe with pamphlets setting forth the advantages of sterilization.

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In view of such a situation the Church was bound to pronounce its views. Up to the present there were many official statements by the Church, directly condemning the practice of contraception, in which an indirect condemnation of sterilization was inferred. Sterilization was only directly condemned in a passage of the IVth Council of

Mechlin, quoted by Dr. Guchte-neere in his book on "Birth Control".

Pope Pius XI intervened officially in the Encyclical letter *Casti Connubii*, the affirmation of which we are going to quote and comment on below :

"And more, they wish to legislate to deprive these of that natural faculty by medical action despite their unwillingness; and this they do not propose as an infliction of grave punishment under the authority of the state for a crime committed, nor to prevent future crimes by guilty persons, but against every right and good they wish the civil authority to arrogate to itself a power over a faculty which it never had and can never legitimately possess...

...Public magistrates have no direct power over the bodies of their subjects; therefore, where no crime has taken place and there is no cause present for grave punishment, they can never directly harm, or tamper with the integrity of the body, either for the reasons of eugenics or for any other reason. St. Thomas teaches this when, inquiring whether human judges for the sake of preventing future evils can inflict punishment, he admits that the power indeed exists as regards certain other forms of evil, but justly and properly denies it as regards the maiming of the body. "No one who is guiltless may be punished by a human tribunal either by flogging to death, or mutilation, or by beating." (Summ. theol. 2a 2ae, q. 108o a 4 ad 2um.)

Furthermore, Christian doctrine establishes, and the light of human reason makes it most clear, that private individuals have no other power over the members of their bodies than that which pertains to

their natural ends; and they are not free to destroy or mutilate their members, or in any other way render themselves unfit for their natural functions, except when no other provision can be made for the good of the whole body.

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Here is what seems to us to be the theological explanation of this teaching:

1. The Encyclical letter makes no distinction between an operation of cutting or a difforming operation and one which would make certain organs "incapable of carrying out their natural functions". It does not even allude to operations which would retain the capacity of enjoyment or those which would only produce a temporary sterilization. The Encyclical letter is directed at any intervention whatsoever which has as its object to "deprive of the natural faculty of procreation".

2. The removal of certain organs whose bad condition or defective functioning are harmful to the general health is not forbidden, even if this removal causes incapacity to procreate. An organ is by nature subordinate to the body as a part of a whole, and so can be sacrificed. Moreover in this case incapacity to procreate is not a direct aim; so the removed organs are considered as organs of the body, not as organs of reproduction. Sterilization is not desired for itself. It would not be permissible to a woman to put forward as a plea the danger of future motherhood in order to be sterilized, "as there are other means of ensuring the well-being of the whole body" by the practice of continence.

3. The individual must never want sterilization for itself, no matter by what method. Laws which

permit sterilization with the consent of the interested party or his guardians invoke in this case a vain pretext. Consent given by the individual is null and void.

4. In questions of sterilization public authority has decidedly a greater right than the individual. It is observed that the Encyclical letter does not absolutely reject sterilization as a punishment inflicted by the State upon a subject, as against certain countries which definitely reject sterilization as a penalty.

The attitude of the Church on this point is explained by its doctrine on the eminent dignity of civil authority, which fulfils its functions in the name of God. It is the representative of God; it commands and punishes in His name. Following traditional doctrine it has even the power over life and death of its citizens, on condition that, in pursuit of this power it considers those whom it judges to be endowed with conscience and responsibility, persons who, having willingly acted contrary to their nature as men, have willingly through crime placed themselves on the level of the unreasoning. (St. Thomas, Summ. theol. II,II q. 64 ad. 3 um.)

Now those who are able to do the greatest, can also do the least. If civil authority has the right to condemn to death, it necessarily has the right to deprive a citizen of his power of procreation, but only for punishment and for evil voluntarily committed.

Civil authority should therefore not be permitted to sterilize, even a degenerate in order to prevent him from committing a future crime. To punish a crime by mutilation it must be for its commission, not in anticipation.

The Encyclical letter moreover observes that if civil authority can

inflict no mutilation on an individual for future ills of which he might be the cause, yet it can inflict a punishment on him other than a harmful one. It can for instance send him to an asylum or take other measures disagreeable to the individual.

The right of sterilization, which the theologians and the Encyclical letter accord to the civil authority in case of crime committed, does not seem to be acknowledged in fact at the present time, on account of the evolution of our customs and penal law. Legislation such as that of the Middle Ages recognized the law of retaliation which established a distinct relation between the crime and its punishment. To strike the imagination a punishment was sought which would affect the man in the same organ which had been the instrument of the crime. The blasphemer's tongue was cut off, the hand of those who had struck their parents... Why should the power of creation be forbidden in itself for those who have abused it through crime?

But the question is not the same for our modern laws. The law of retaliation is no longer admitted and is no longer admissible, for the simple reason that it corresponds to a state of civilization now outgrown. If the only case in which civil authority could formerly inflict mutilation is rejected as unadaptable to our times, then civil authority, even judicial authority, cannot at present time in any case order or permit this sort of operation by reason of the social welfare committed to its charge.

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The reason for opposition by the Church to intervention of this sort is entirely based on the eminent dignity of the human being, which

counterbalances perfectly the other doctrine mentioned above, of the eminent dignity of authority. In reality all reasons set forth by partisans of Eugenics lead more or less directly to the doctrine which subordinates man totally to society or race. Man is treated by it as a member of the social whole. As Mr. Faguet said ironically, he is no longer a "man", but a "foot".

Dr. Clément in the French magazine of the Society of St. Luke (June 1934), quotes this affirmation on the subject that "the beneficial deeds of doctors should have in view *above all* the social body as a whole and only indirectly the welfare of the sick person". Admitting this, everything else follows. If man is in reality only an organ of the social body, he is totally subordinate to it and can very well be completely sacrificed to it. The only discussion then will be regarding the latitude which must be given the State in these matters. Some will be more cautious, others bolder. We have just observed to what extent this boldness can go.

Without a doubt, many eugenisists protest against such exaggerations. The greater number of laws which permit sterilization contain articles which pretend to limit strictly its use, but how can it be ignored that sterilization once accepted as a measure of eugenics, its application will vary logically with the conception of Eugenics? The idea of Eugenics which inspired all this campaign is essentially material, making no difference in the natures of man and animal. It tends therefore in itself to make of society a stud where only those citizens recognized by the State will be authorized to reproduce offspring apt to serve the race.

The Church is opposed to all these



discussions, not by lessening the application of the principle involved, but by denying directly the principle itself. Man is a creature of God. In this capacity he is directly subordinate to Him and by virtue of this is free of all dependence on others, individual or collective who do not act in God's name. Human life is at the disposal of no one and cannot be treated by any group as a simple means.

Human life and its propagation are things of the same order. The fact of procreation is no more at the disposal of the State than the fact of living, for procreation is not only giving citizens to the State, but preparing for God immortal adorers. Sterilization is an attempt on human life considered not only as subsisting in an individual, but as perpetuating itself in a race. In the same way that to condemn to death an innocent man, even abnormal, is a forbidden act against nature, so it is with sterility. Respect due to human life, which is one of the essential laws of ethics and also one of the fundamental bases of society, exacts: "Thou shall not kill the innocent, nor the race which is in him".

From this point of view the weakness of the present argument appears which pretends to authorize sterilization under the vain pretext that present intervention leaves the faculty of enjoyment intact. Can one make enjoyment the aim of life, so that, this faculty of enjoyment safeguarded, all is safe?

The debated question is not that.

It is a question as to whether one is going to accept the pagan conception which puts man at the disposal of man, consequently the weak at the disposal of the strong, or whether one of the essential points of christian revelation is to be maintained, which recognizes in each human life, no matter how weak, poor, degenerate, an absolute value which allows no one to dispose of it as he likes.

The gravity of the propaganda in favor of sterilization of the abnormal is that it presents a conception of man in opposition to that which Jesus Christ came to reveal to the world. Every time that, in one way or another, one pretends to treat a man as a means, he is denying that he is a son of God, *directly* made to know, love and serve Him, and is consequently a means for nothing and no one. The whole Christian conception of civilization is bound up in this affirmation.

It is comforting to see that, in the face of this new problem which has presented itself for a solution, the Church has taken the only step which permits it to be faithful to its founder and to its divine mission to protect the humble, small and weak. It has the right to continue to sing the Holy Virgin's Magnificat: "He hath scattered the proud in the imagination of their hearts, He hath put down the mighty from their seats, He hath exalted the humble and weak, He hath filled the hungry with good things, but the rich He hath sent empty away."

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# POLISH ORTHOGRAPHICAL ABBREVIATIONS

By The Reverend Mother ELISABETH CZACKA\* and Sister TERESIA  
Warsaw, Poland.

Polish orthographical abbreviations were adopted in the first place thanks to the initiative of Mr. George Raverat, Secretary General of the American Braille Press, who during his stay in Poland in 1928, raised the question of abbreviations and succeeded in arousing the interest of the Ministry of Education in its behalf. The matter was placed in the hands of Mr. John Hellman, then Chief of the Department of Special Schools in the Ministry. After several experiments which produced no effective results, the preparation of a scheme was entrusted by the Government in 1930, through the initiative of Dr. Maria Grzegorzewska, director of the State Institute of Special Pedagogy, to the Society for the Care of the Blind.

The Board of the Society confided the preparation of a scheme to us. After beginning the work we immediately realized that it required much material which must first of all be collected. We began by acquainting ourselves with all the systems of orthographic abbreviations accessible to us in different

languages. We studied therefore two French systems : one by Maurice de la Sizeranne and the new "Abrégé Orthographique Amplifié", Latin abbreviations as well as English, German and Tchech. The "Abrégé Orthographique" of Maurice de la Sizeranne served as a model in working out a system and in formulating the principles. The "Abrégé Amplifié" taught us the economical use of Braille signs by giving different meanings to one and the same sign. These foreign examples were able to supply us with general suggestions how to abbreviate. But the next task and a far more difficult one was to decide what should be abbreviated. If we take into account only the vocabulary, we might have our choice on the material collected from different languages, as the most frequent words answering the most frequent conceptions are, in general, the same all over the world. Abbreviation, however, as we know, consists of curtailing parts of words such as prefixes, suffixes and especially of groups of letters the most frequently used with one another. This part of abbreviation differs in every language, we

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\* Blind.

## ANAGLYPTOGRAPHY

Louis Braille's system

completed by J. J. MONNIER's numeration



	1 a	2 b	3 c	4 d	5 e	6 f	7 g	8 h	9 i	10 j
<b>I*</b>										
	11 k	12 l	13 m	14 n	15 o	16 p	17 q	18 r	19 s	20 t
<b>II*</b>										
	21 u	22 v	23 x	24 y	25 z	26	27	28	29	30
<b>III*</b>										
	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40 w
<b>IV*</b>										
	41 s	42 ;	43 :	44 .	45 ?	46 !	47 ( )	48 n	49 *	50 "
<b>V*</b>										
	51	52	53	54	55 \$	56	57	58	59	60
<b>VI</b>										
	61	62	63							
<b>VII</b>										

consequently were obliged to carry out special research for this material to suit the needs and peculiarities of the Polish language.

It was necessary to choose the most frequent words, prefixes, suffixes, endings and groups of letters so as to exclude as far as possible a casual choice of abbreviations and to give them as scientific a character as possible. We therefore applied to specialists abroad to learn by the help of which method they had decided on the choice of material suitable for abbreviation, but the answers were very general; nor did the shorthand writers to whom we applied for the same information in Poland give us satisfactory replies.

We then solicited information from people acquainted with statistical methods, asking their advice to carry out the respective calculations.

In the Chief Bureau of Statistics the Head of the Department, Mr. Kraeutler, elaborated a special method for us, consisting in examining the pages of each of the texts of print treating various subjects which afterwards were compared with each other showing the average frequency of different grouping of letters, prefixes, suffixes and endings. At first these calculations were made by an employee of the Society, afterwards they were transferred to the Chief Bureau of Statistics and carried out by special clerks under the impartial and competent direction of Mr. Kraeutler. Thanks to the kind help of the American Braille Press, which paid for the work of gathering statistics at the Head Office, it was possible to complete the project and to obtain results which henceforth may serve as a fixed basis for the Polish System of Ortho-

graphic Abbreviations. The frequency of groups of letters have been calculated at about 100,000, the final system was elaborated by the Chief Mr. Kraeutler.

A great difficulty was presented in compiling a dictionary of words to be abbreviated. In spite of careful search and of application to eminent philological specialists and statisticians, it was not possible to find a sufficiently practical method to investigate the frequency of words analogous to the method of investigating the frequency of the grouping of letters. The dictionary that has been compiled by means of comparing systems of abbreviations known to us in different languages, seemed to us somewhat casual and we have only been able to make use of it partially as a basis for our dictionary.

Finally, following the advice of Prof. Benni we decided to make a study of the great Polish dictionary and to make a selection as follows. We tried to regulate above all a certain choice of the words most frequently used in common parlance principally defining relations, hence prepositions and adverbs also nouns, verbs, and adjectives defining mostly objects, actions and qualities. In this selection we were guided rather by common sense and intuition, understanding that, in this way, we are leaving open a certain field for individual interpretation and chance.

Together with the work of statistical calculations we carried on that of creating a framework in which to place the collected material. A great help in manipulating Braille signs was the table and numeration of Mr. J. J. Monnier (it is strange that his is so little known in the world of those interested



in the welfare of the blind). It also facilitated for us the naming of separate Braille signs, which constitutes no little difficulty in all work connected with the Braille system, as also the selection of abbreviation signs as logical as possible and easy to remember (see Monnier table).

After concluding the preparatory work we proceeded to the actual arrangement of abbreviations. Firstly we selected the most frequent grouping of letters and the most frequent words, which we indicated by single signs, rejecting only 6 signs, which in Polish, although belonging to the alphabet, have at the same time the signification of words. From the 57 remaining signs we formed a basis of the simplest abbreviations accessible to the elementary forms and designed for the two last classes of the primary school. We avoided combining several significations in the same sign so as not to increase difficulties for beginners, who after gradually becoming accustomed to the easiest adaptations, will continue with facility the advanced system.

In the complete system as mentioned above we have endeavored to use signs as economically as possible applying as far as we can the same sign as an abbreviation of different elements. So a sign written separately may signify an abbreviated word, at the beginning of the word—a prefix, at the end—an affix; before a vowel a sound may have a quite different meaning than before a consonant. This principle, taken from the "Abrégé Orthographique Amplifié". American Braille Press has rendered much service in creating the Polish System of Abbreviations, as it has greatly increased the possibility of abbreviating, which consid-

ering the extent of grammatical forms in the Polish language, was a thing much to be desired. On the whole, besides abbreviations of two or more signs, we have succeeded in obtaining 204 combinations of simple abbreviations of one sign.

As the Polish language has inflections not only of verbs but also of nouns, adjectives and pronouns, we have created special examples of abbreviated inflections. The whole system is arranged as follows. Part I—contains all abbreviations of one sign; part II—all abbreviations of several signs. In part I the same abbreviations are given in a different arrangement for the convenience of the readers. Table A in this part is really the table of the system with the numeration of Mr. J. J. Monnier in which each sign is presented in successive order with all its significations. Table B gives the same abbreviations of one sign in alphabetic order. The supplementary Table C. gives again the same abbreviations, classifying them into abbreviations of words, prefixes, suffixes and so on. Part II contains a dictionary of words abbreviated by two or more signs in elementary forms, and supplementary dictionary of inflections of the words. Polish abbreviations shorten the print by more than one third.

The System of Abbreviations was presented by the Society for the Care of the Blind to the Ministry of Education and Public Worship on February 24th 1934 and after consideration by competent members was authorized by the Ministry of Education on May 24th 1934 and recommended as obligatory from the school year 1934/5 in all schools for the blind in Poland together with the alphabet, the signs of which, specific for the Polish lan-

guage, have at the same time been definitely fixed. The alphabet and abbreviations have been printed in the Official Gazette of the Ministry of Education.

The Polish blind and those interested in the affairs of the blind

express sincere gratitude to the American Braille Press for giving the impulse to accomplish this work and for the material help which has facilitated the execution of the indispensable statistical researches.

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